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THE ARMISTICE PERIOD

CURRENT HISTORY

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A YEAR

JANUARY, 1919

ARMISTICE

ITS FULFILLMENT

(Official Facts)

ALLIES IN GERMANY
PRESIDENT IN EUROPE

PERSHING—HAIG
ALLENBY—DANIELS—BAKER
(Official Reports)

WOMEN IN THE WAR
GERMANY'S REVOLUTION

MAPS—CARTOONS—PICTURES

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THOMAS R. MARSHALL



Vice President of the United States, Whose Responsibilities Were
Increased by the President's Absence in Europe.

CARTER GLASS



Nominated Dec. 5, 1918, to be Secretary of the Treasury, Succeeding
William G. McAdoo

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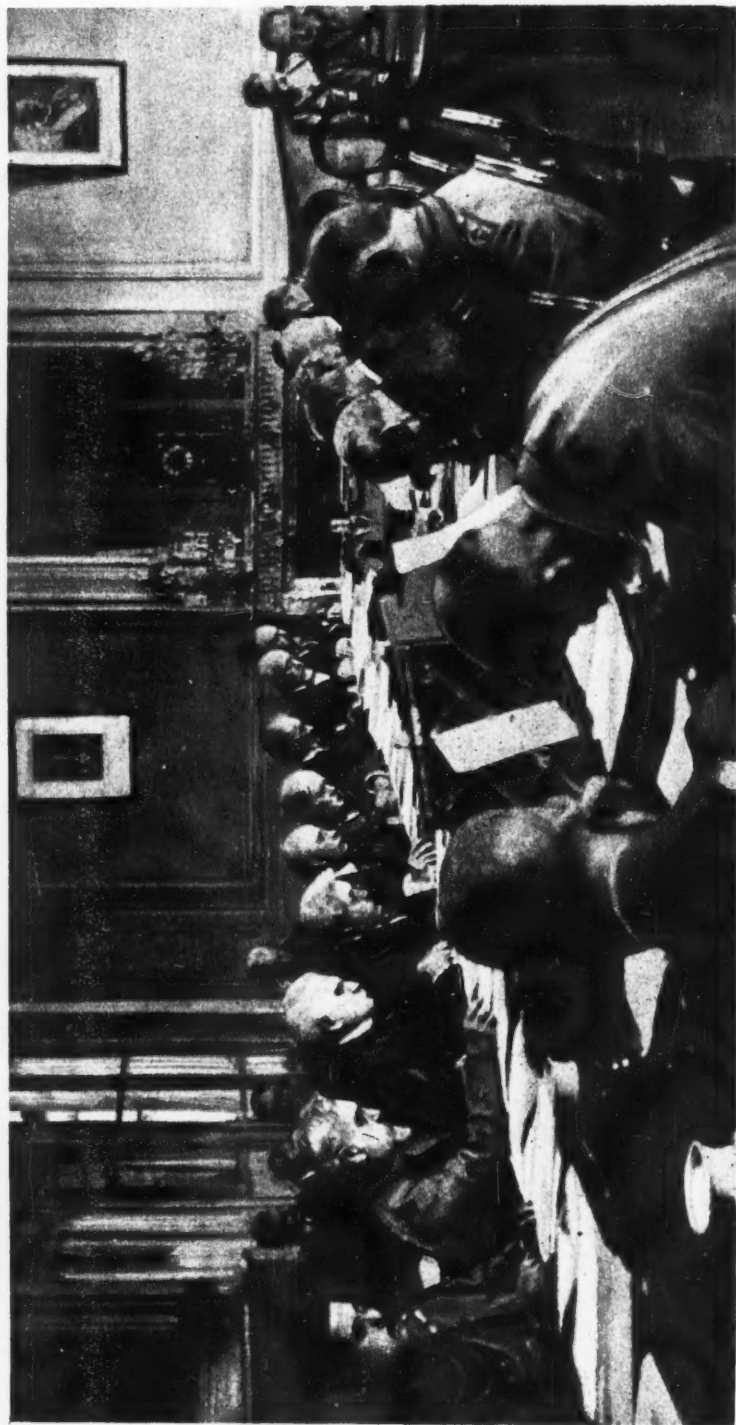
MAJOR GEN. JOSEPH P. DICKMAN



Commander of the Third American Army During Its Occupation of
German Territory

(© Press Illustrating Service)

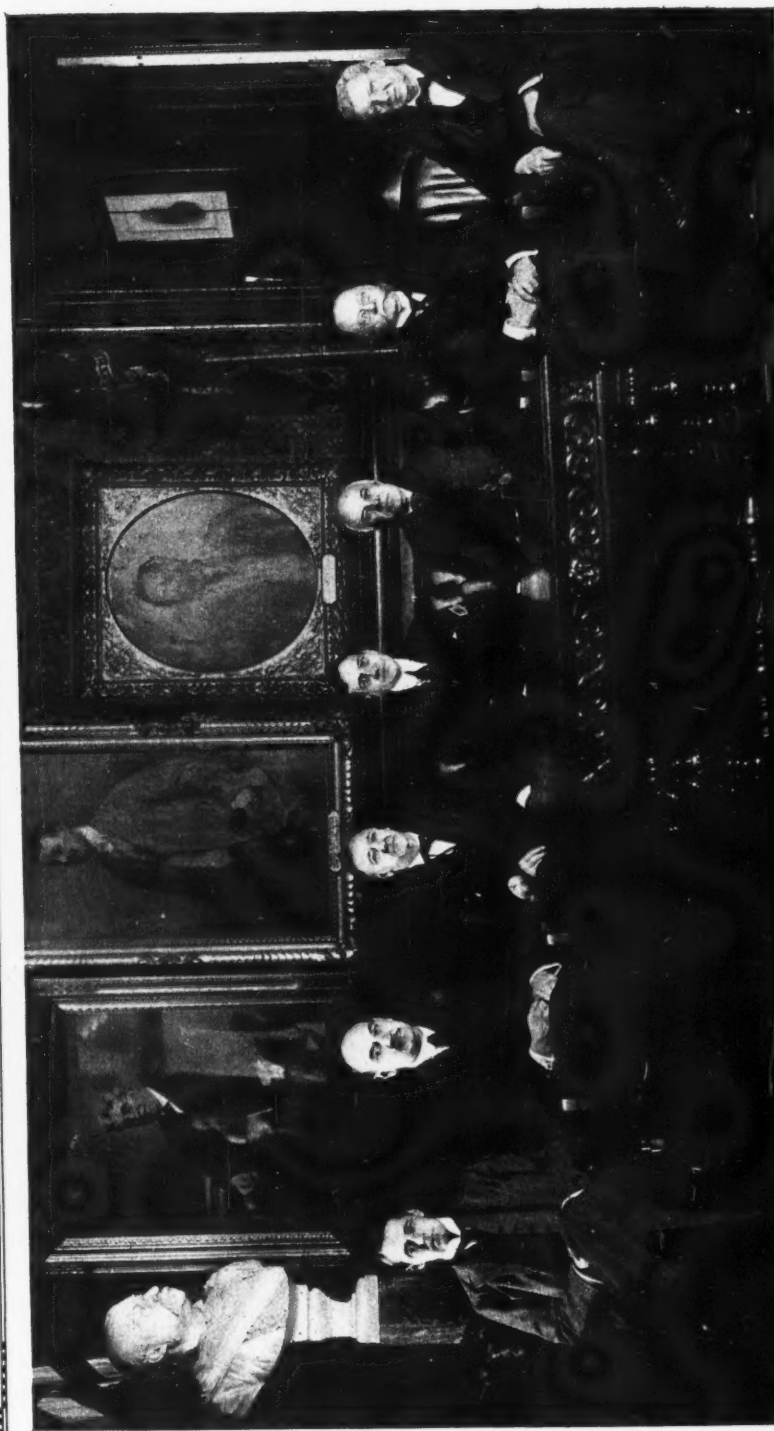
ALLIED COMMISSIONERS FRAMING ARMISTICE TERMS AT VERSAILLES



French Official Photograph Showing the Allied Plenipotentiaries at Work on Terms of Armistice. Left Side of Table from Left to Right: Second Man, General di Robilant; Italian Foreign Minister Sonnino, Italian Premier Orlando, Colonel E. M. House, General Tasker H. Bliss; Next But One, Premier Venizelos, and the Serbian Minister, Vesnitch. At the Right: Vice Admiral Wemyss, General Sir Henry Wilson, Field Marshal Haig, General Sackville West, Andrew Bonar Law, Premier Lloyd George, Premier Clemenceau, and French Foreign Minister Stephen Pichon.

(© Underwood & Underwood)

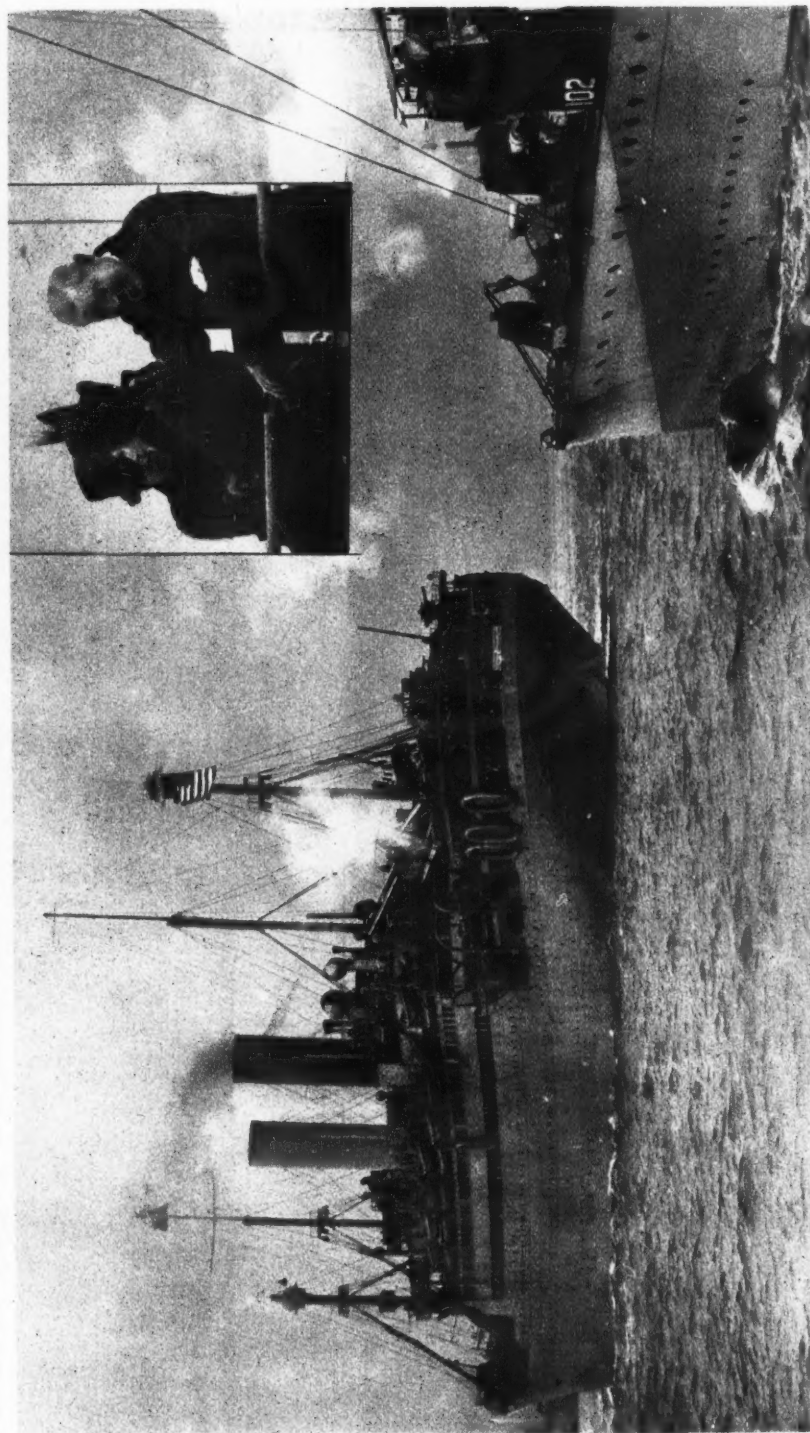
UNITED STATES COUNCIL OF NATIONAL DEFENSE



The Council of National Defense, Whose Members Exercised Great Influence on the Conduct of the War. This Picture Was Taken on Nov. 29, 1918. From Left to Right Are Grosvenor B. Clarkson, Secretary of the Council Throughout the War, and These Members of the Cabinet: David F. Houston, Josephus Daniels, Newton D. Baker, Franklin K. Lane, William C. Redfield, and William B. Wilson

(C) Harris & Evinger

PRESIDENT WILSON LEAVING AMERICA FOR PEACE CONFERENCE



The George Washington, Flying the President's Flag and Accompanied by Destroyers, Steaming Down the Harbor Dec. 4, 1918. (Insert) The President and Mrs. Wilson Standing at the Rail

(© International Film Service)

MAURETANIA, SISTER SHIP OF THE LUSITANIA



The Camouflaged Mauretania, Bringing the First Shipload of Returning American Soldiers and Receiving an Uproarious Welcome in New York Harbor, Dec. 2, 1918

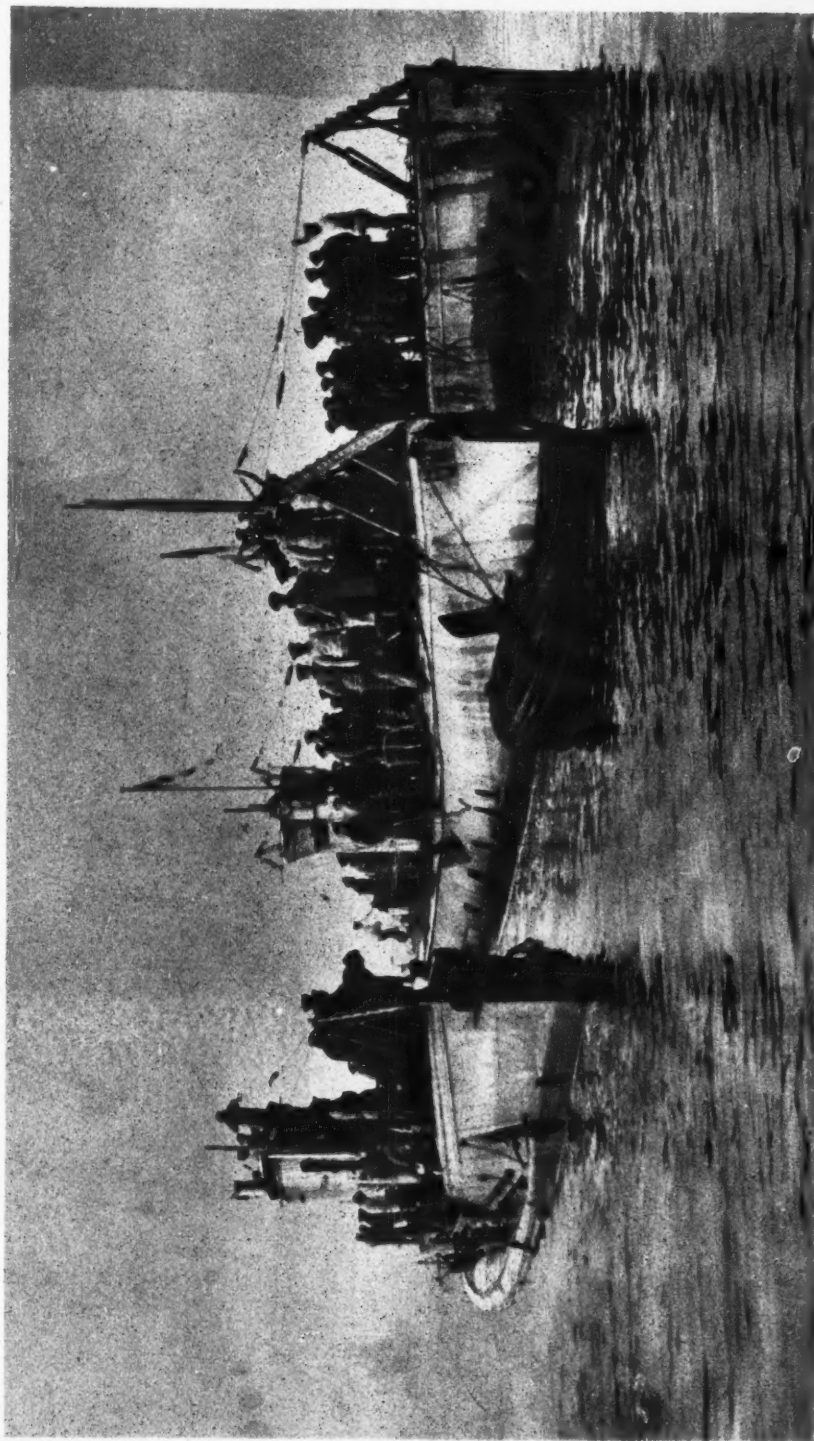
(© Times Photo Service)

THE GREATEST NAVAL SURRENDER IN HISTORY



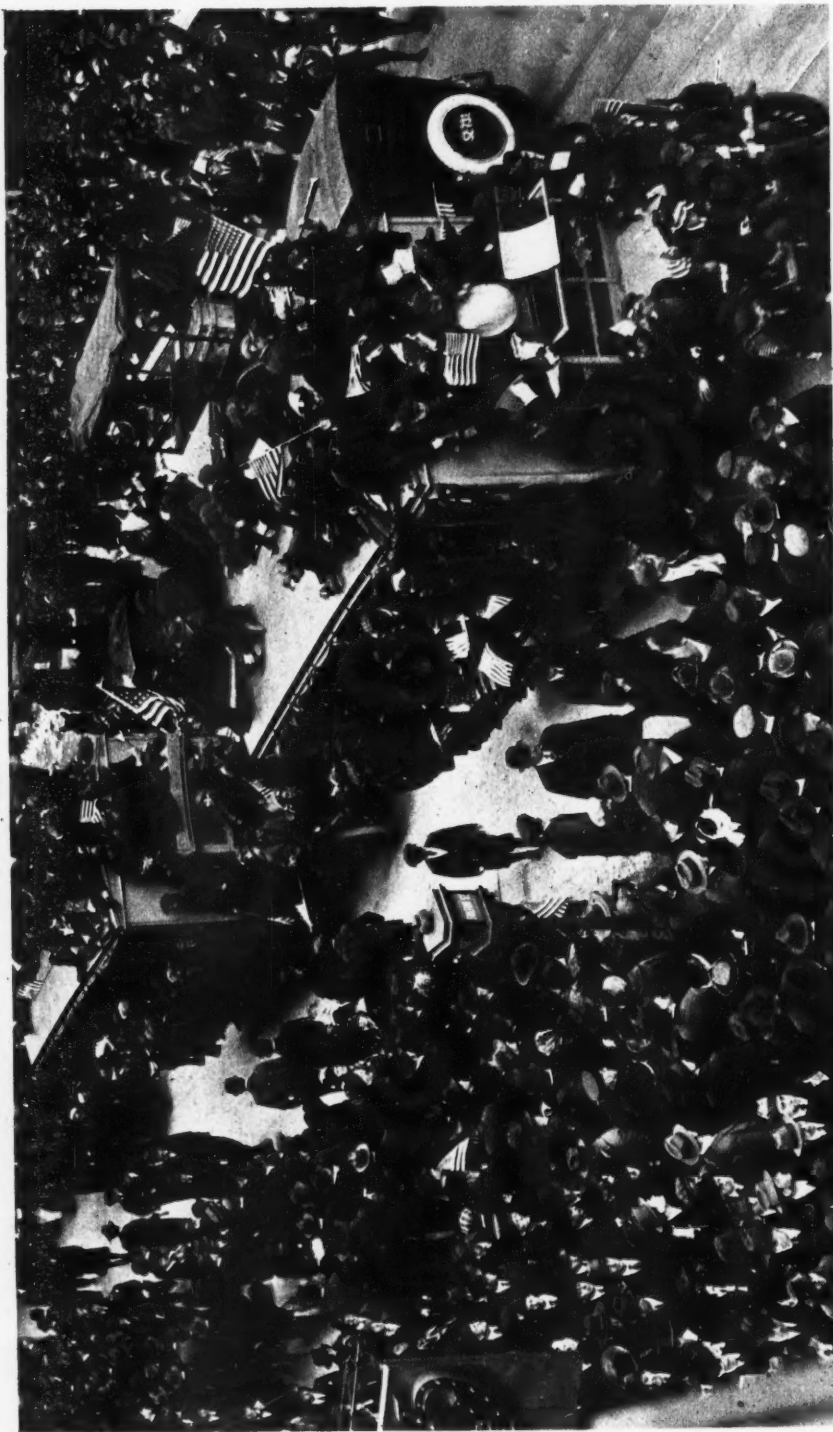
The Surrender of the German High Seas Fleet in Accordance with the Armistice Terms Took Place on Nov. 21, 1918, Off the Scottish Coast. Allied Fleets of More Than 400 Vessels Were Drawn Up in Two Lines, and Through These the German Vessels Passed. The Allies Then Took Possession and Sent the Crews Back to Germany

SURRENDER OF GERMAN SUBMARINES



A Group of U-Boats at the Moment When They Were Yielded to the Allies in Compliance with the Armistice Terms, Which Called for the Surrender of the Whole German Underseas Fleet

NEW YORK CELEBRATING THE END OF THE WAR



Scenes of Joyous Demonstrations When News of the Signing of the Armistice Was Received in New York City

REJOICINGS IN ALLIED CAPITALS



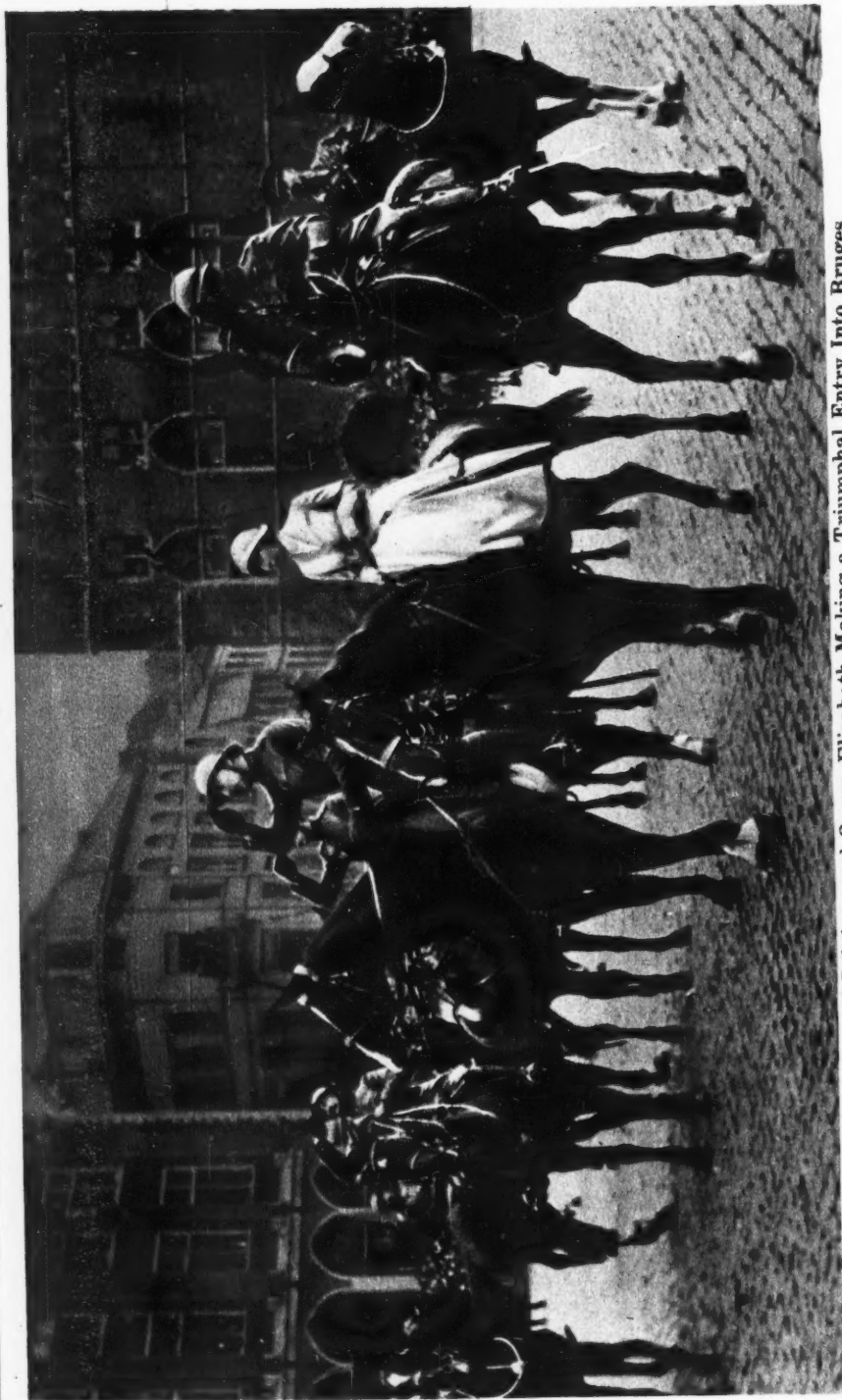
Crowds Before Buckingham Palace, London, Cheering the King, Who Appeared on the Balcony

(© British Official Photo from Western Newspaper Union)



The Place de l'Opera, in the Heart of Paris, Packed with Frenzied Throngs Celebrating the News of Victory

BELGIUM REDEEMED FROM GERMAN RULE



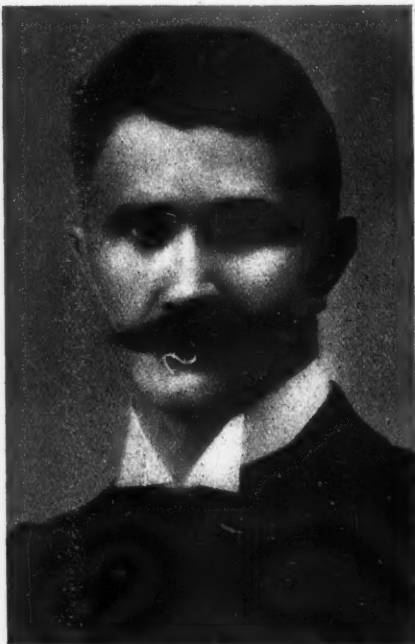
King Albert of Belgium and Queen Elizabeth Making a Triumphal Entry Into Bruges

GERMAN OCCUPIED TERRITORY



This Map Shows the Line of Battle When Hostilities Ceased, the Territory Occupied by Allied Armies, the Neutral Zone, and the Line of Furthest German Advance in France, Sept. 6, 1914

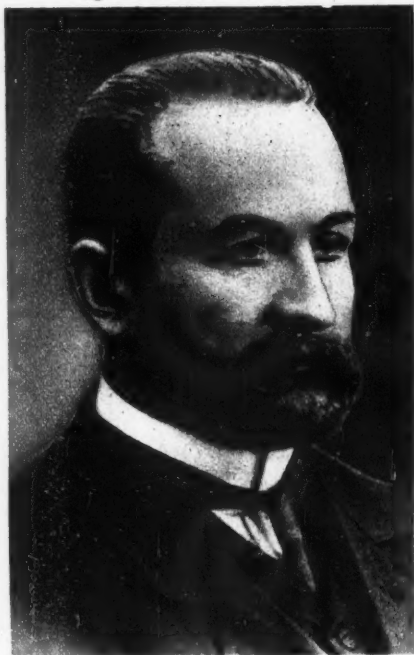
BALKAN AND RUSSIAN STATESMEN



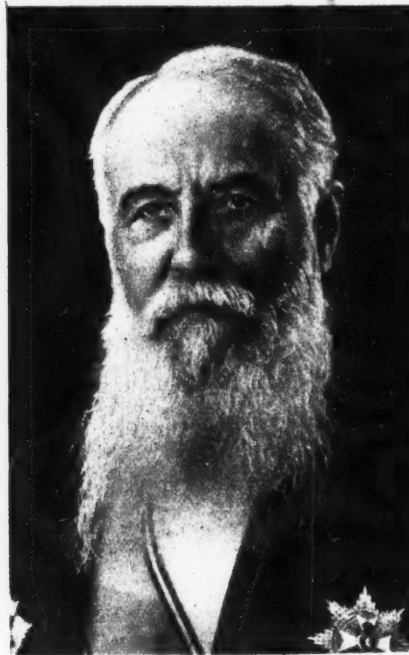
Ignace Daszynski
Provisional President of Poland
(© Underwood & Underwood)



Vice Admiral Koltchak
Head of Russian Government at Omsk



Prince Lvoff
Head of First Russian Provisional Government

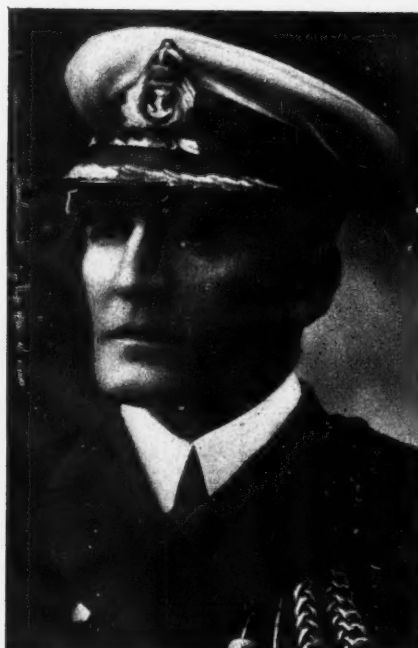


Nicholas Pashitch
Prime Minister of Serbia

FIGURES IN GERMAN FLEET SURRENDER



Rear Admiral Hugh Rodman
Commanding American Dreadnought Squadron



British Vice Admiral Tyrwhitt
Who Received Surrender of German Submarines

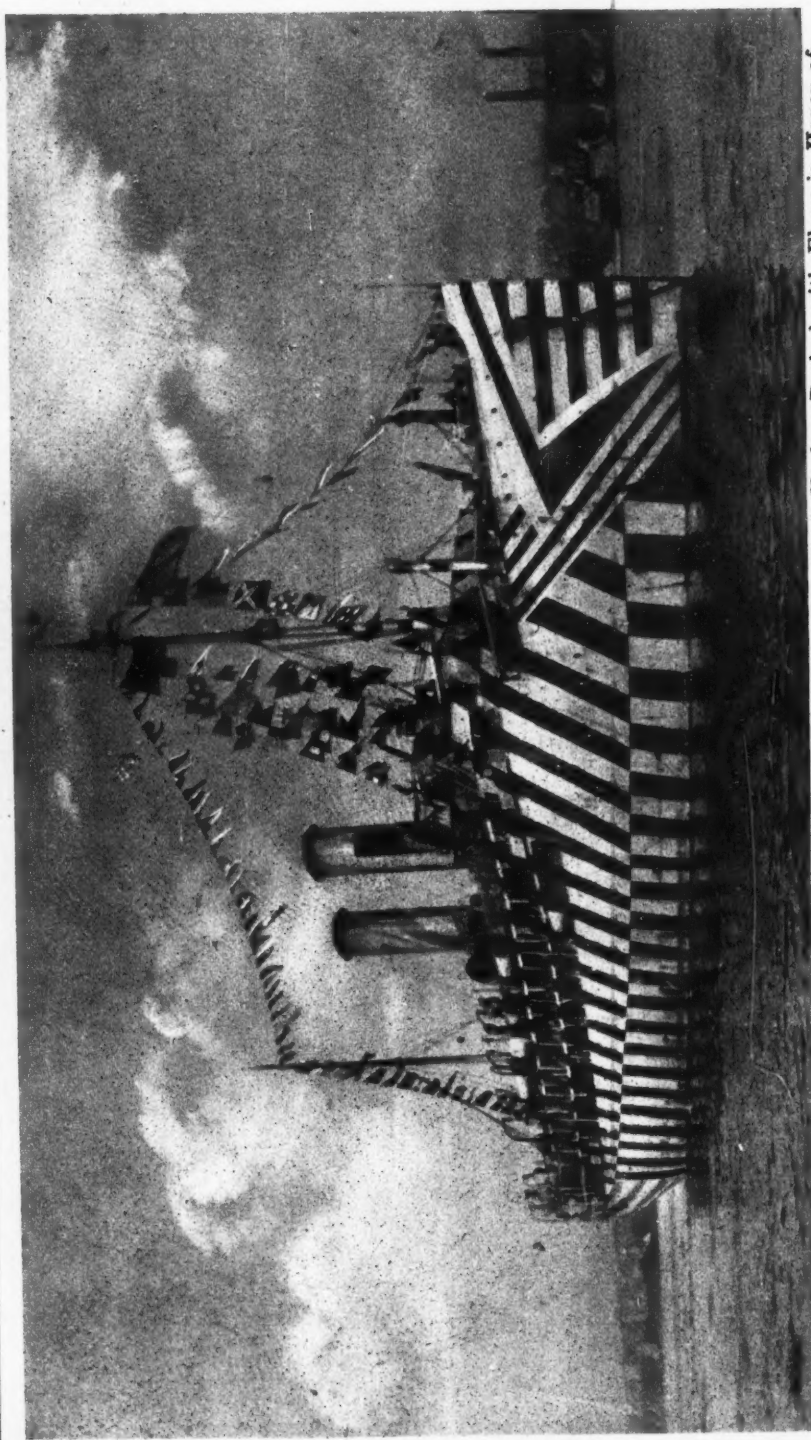


Vice Admiral Ritter von Mann
Head of the German Navy



Vice Admiral von Hipper
Head of German High Seas Fleet at Time of Surrender

A STRIKING EXAMPLE OF MARINE CAMOUFLAGE



The Zebra Striped British Transport Osterley, as She Appeared in New York Harbor, Decked with Flags in Honor of the Armistice, Nov. 11, 1918
(© Underwood & Underwood)

CURRENT HISTORY

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PRESIDENT WILSON IN EUROPE

Story of His Voyage and of His Memorable Reception as a Guest of the French Nation

PRESIDENT WOODROW WILSON sailed for France at the head of the American delegation to the Peace Conference on the steamship George Washington at 10:15 A. M., Dec. 4, and arrived at Brest Dec. 13. The voyage had a profound significance, as it was a radical departure from the immemorial custom of American Presidents not to leave the country while in office; moreover, it marked the first active step of definite participation in European politics by an American President. The act gave notice to the world that Mr. Wilson intended not only to take a personal and practical hand in shaping the peace treaties growing out of the world war, but to interpret and urge personally the adoption of his war aims platform, which included as cardinal points "the freedom of the seas" and "a League of Nations."

The announcement of his purpose to go to Europe was officially made on Nov. 18, as follows:

The President expects to sail for France immediately after the opening of the regular session of Congress, for the purpose of taking part in the discussion and settlement of the main features of the treaty of peace.

It is not likely that it will be possible for him to remain throughout the sessions of the formal Peace Conference, but his presence at the outset is necessary in order to obviate the manifest disadvantages of discussion by cable in determining the greater outlines of the final treaty, about which he must necessarily be consulted.

He will, of course, be accompanied by delegates who will sit as the representatives of the United States throughout the conference. The names of the delegates will be presently announced.

This was supplemented on Nov. 29 by the following announcement regarding the membership of the United States delegation to the Peace Conference:

It was announced at the Executive offices tonight that the representatives of the United States at the Peace Conference would be: The President himself, the Sec-

retary of State, the Hon. Henry White, recently Ambassador to France; Mr. Edward M. House, and General Tasker H. Bliss. It was explained that it had not been possible to announce these appointments before because the number of representatives the chief belligerents were to send had until a day or two ago been under discussion.

The announcement had a marked political effect. The Republican leaders and a number of influential independent newspapers and publicists who are neutral in politics expressed strong disapproval of the trip. Measures were introduced in both Houses of Congress by Republicans declaring that the office of President would be vacated during Mr. Wilson's absence from the country. Nothing came of these measures, however, and when the President sailed the agitation had subsided without having brought about any definite action by any official body. The only episode in this phase of the matter was the presence of Vice President Marshall at a meeting of the Cabinet in the White House on Dec. 10, over which he presided. He made the following statement to the members of the Cabinet:

Gentlemen: In assuming the chair and presiding over what is known as a meeting of the Cabinet I deem it proper to make a brief statement so that my conduct may not be misunderstood nor misinterpreted. I am here and am acting in obedience to a request preferred by the President upon the eve of his departure and also at your request. But I am here informally and personally. I am not undertaking to exercise any official duty or function. I shall preside in an unofficial and informal way over your meetings out of deference to your desires and those of the President.

THE PRESIDENT'S DEPARTURE

The departure of President Wilson was witnessed by thousands of persons from the waterfront of Manhattan and Staten Island, while craft in the harbor

joined in a noisy farewell, the like of which New York had, perhaps, never before heard. The President, with Mrs. Wilson at his side, stood on the bridge of the great transport and waved his hands and tipped his hat time and time again to show his appreciation of New York's parting tribute.

The George Washington was escorted down the harbor by five destroyers of the Atlantic Torpedo Flotilla. Off Staten Island the superdreadnought Pennsylvania, flagship of Admiral Henry T. Mayo, the Commander in Chief of the battle fleet, and a dozen other destroyers, the last under orders to escort the liner to a point about 100 miles east of Sandy Hook, and then to return to New York, met the Presidential ship. The Pennsylvania and one flotilla of destroyers convoyed the George Washington to Brest.

The scene on the Government pier in Hoboken when the George Washington backed out into the river at high tide was inspiring. The general public was barred from the pier reservation, the only persons within the inclosure being soldiers, sailors, Government officials, employes, and press representatives.

While the vessel was slowly making its way through the harbor two army airplanes from Mineola came out of the clouds and, swooping low, gave a thrilling touch to the wonderful picture. One of the machines came into view from the east and the other from the north. Both looped the loop, made nose dives, and performed other feats that made the thousands on shore and on ships gasp at the audacity of the pilots. Beyond the Statue of Liberty the Atlantic transport liner Minnehaha, from London, her decks crowded with returning American troops, passed the Washington and the President waved not once, but many times, a greeting to the khaki-clad host.

FAREWELL TRIBUTES

On the Battery perhaps 10,000 persons jammed the seawall to join in the farewell to the President, while on Governor's Island the soldiers rushed to the western shore and shouted their respects to the Commander in Chief. Other great crowds lined the Staten Island shore and

gave the President a greeting. It was off Staten Island that the Washington passed the Minnehaha and the President got his first opportunity personally to wave a welcome home to the men who went overseas to fight.

The George Washington and the naval escort passed Quarantine at 11 o'clock, the Pennsylvania leading the destroyers deployed on either side and in the wake of the transport. Several gunboats in the lower bay thundered out the Presidential salute as the George Washington passed by, and the compliment was repeated by the coast artillerymen when the George Washington was abreast Forts Hamilton and Wadsworth.

As the squadron passed through the gate in the anti-submarine net within 500 feet of the Staten Island shore a group of 500 children waved flags, and this was the last of the tributes accorded the President as he left his home shores for those of France.

MEMBERS OF THE PARTY

The following was the official personnel of the party:

President Wilson.
Mrs. Wilson.
Rear Admiral Cary T. Grayson, U. S. N.
Charles S. Swemm, confidential clerk to the President.
Irving H. Hoover, head usher of the White House.
Miss Edith Benham, secretary to Mrs. Wilson.
George Creel, Chairman of the Committee on Public Information.

GUESTS OF THE PRESIDENT

Jules J. Jusserand, the French Ambassador, and Mme. Jusserand.
Count V. Macchi di Cellere, the Italian Ambassador; the Countess di Cellere, and two children.
John W. Davis, United States Ambassador to Great Britain, and Mrs. Davis.
Mrs. Francisco Quattrone of the Italian Ambassador's party.
Rear Admiral H. K. Knapp, U. S. N.
Captain William V. Pratt, U. S. N.
Mrs. William S. Benson, wife of Admiral Benson, the Chief of Operations.
Mrs. Gordon Auchincloss, daughter of Colonel Edward M. House.
Mrs. Joseph C. Grew and Mrs. David Hunter Miller.
L. C. Probert, representing The Associated Press.
R. J. Bender, representing The United Press.

John E. Nevin of the International News Service.

MEMBERS OF THE AMERICAN PEACE COMMISSION

Secretary of State Robert Lansing, accompanied by Mrs. Lansing.

Henry White.

Leland Harrison, Assistant Secretary of the Commission.

Phillip H. Patchin, Assistant Secretary of the Commission.

Sydney V. Smith, Chief of Bureau, Department of State, attached to the Commission.

William McNeir, Chief of Bureau, Department of State, Disbursing Officer of the Commission.

George H. Harris, Assistant Disbursing Officer of the Commission.

William C. Bullitt, attached to the Commission.

R. O. Sweet, Secretary to Secretary Lansing.

SPECIALISTS

Dr. Isalah Bowman, Territorial Specialist.
Allyn A. Young, Specialist on Economic Resources.

Charles H. Haskins, Specialist on Alsace-Lorraine and Belgium.

Clive Day, Specialist on the Balkans.

W. E. Lunt, Specialist on Northern Italy.

R. H. Lord, Specialist on Russia and Poland.

Charles Seymour, Specialist on Austria-Hungary.

W. L. Westermann, Specialist on Turkey.

G. L. Beer, Specialist on Colonial History.

Mark Jefferson, Cartographer.

Dr. S. E. Mezes, President, College of the City of New York, and Mrs. Mezes.

J. T. Shotwell.

Major James Brown Scott, Technical Adviser, and Mrs. Scott.

George A. Finch, Assistant to Major Scott.

Professor Amos S. Hershey, Assistant to Major Scott.

George D. Gregory, Confidential Clerk to Major Scott.

There were, besides, a number of assistants and the following from the War Department:

Brig. Gen. William H. Harts.

Brig. Gen. Marlborough Churchill, Chief of Army Intelligence Service.

Colonel Richard H. Jordan, General Staff.

Colonel L. P. Ayers, General Staff.

Major Hunter S. Marston, Adjutant General's Department.

Major C. W. Furlong, U. S. A.

Captain T. M. Childs, U. S. A.

Raymond B. Fosdick.

ARRIVAL IN FRANCE

The voyage was without incident. The President remained in daily communication with Washington by wireless, and daily bulletins from the George Wash-

ington were sent to the press. As the vessel passed the Azores it was greeted with salutes. The George Washington dropped anchor in Brest Roadstead Dec. 13, and the President stepped on French soil at 3:24 P. M.

Before he landed, his arrival in the harbor at 1 P. M. was the culmination of an imposing naval spectacle, which began as the Presidential fleet rounded the outer capes, then passed the entrance forts, and moved majestically into the harbor, where the George Washington anchored at the head of a long double column of American dreadnoughts and destroyers and the units of a French cruiser squadron.

Ahead came a single destroyer, showing the way to the fleet, and close behind loomed the huge bulk of the battle-ships Pennsylvania and Wyoming, flying, respectively, the flags of Admiral Mayo, Commander of the Atlantic Fleet, and Vice Admiral Sims, Commander of the American naval forces in European waters. Just back of them moved the George Washington, bearing the President, flanked on either side by the battle-ships Arkansas, Florida, Utah, Nevada, Oklahoma, New York, Texas, and Arizona, by French cruisers, and by a great flotilla of American and French torpedo-boat destroyers.

GREETINGS AT BREST

As the fleet neared the inner harbor of Brest the land batteries and the assembled warcraft took up the thunderous salute, while the quays, the hills, and the terraces of the old Breton city rang with cheers from the enthusiastic multitude. At the same time all the warcraft, merchantmen, and transports dressed ship and manned the yards, while the strains of the American anthem floated over the water, mingling with the roar of the guns and the shouts of the vast crowds.

The whole city was a mass of bunting, and the Place President Wilson was hung with streamers and mottoes. The entire route was lined with Venetian masts, flags, and transparencies.

Stephen Pichon, the French Foreign Minister, and Georges Leygues, Minister of Marine, joined the President as he

stepped ashore and conducted him to a beautifully decorated pavilion. Here the first formal welcomes were given President Wilson as a guest of the French Nation. It was a striking picture as he stood there, surrounded by Old World statesmen, officials, and Generals. The President met each greeting with a smile and a hearty handshake, only speaking a few words as some well-known friend welcomed him.

The Mayor of Brest delivered an address of welcome and presented an engrossed address of the Council.

Following the addresses the Presidential party drove through the Cours Dajot, where vast crowds were assembled. Every foot of the way was lined with American soldiers in their dusty service khaki, and along the road were great stores of war material, recently being rushed to the American front. It gave the President his first glimpse of the American troops and material on the fighting ground. Military honors were accorded as he passed, and large numbers of soldiers off duty mingled with the throng in its enthusiastic tribute. The President left for Paris at 4 P. M.

ARRIVAL AT PARIS

The Presidential party arrived in Paris at 10 A. M. Walter Duranty thus described the scene:

"It was exactly 10:30 when there came a fanfare of trumpets from the military band at the Pont de la Concorde, and a movement like a ripple passed over the acres of upturned faces and waving flags that covered the great square. The ranks of soldiers stiffened to attention as the cavalry escorting the Presidential carriages trotted slowly across the bridge. For twenty minutes the gruff double echo of six-inch guns had been roaring out a salute, their flashes being clearly visible beside the slim pillar of the Eiffel Tower across the river.

"As I looked from the Tuileries Terrace it seemed as if no inch of space where a spectator might perch or cling was unoccupied. The tall trees of the garden, overlooking the place, bore ten or

a dozen each—always with a doughboy at a dizzy eminence above the others.

"On the left was the roof of the Chamber of Deputies, with a fringe of people, and on the Grand Palais, half a mile up the Avenue des Champs Elysées, one could distinguish the blue uniforms and the color of waving flags. On the right the French flag fluttered above the black masses on the roof of the Ministry of Marine. Beside it, across the Rue Royale, a crowd clustered around a pole bearing the Stars and Stripes on top of the Red Cross headquarters.

"At the entrance of the Rue Rivoli, the statue of Strasbourg, stripped at last of emblems of mourning, was entirely hidden by a human pyramid—one enthusiast standing right on the statue's head, waving a big American flag. The neighboring statue of Lille had a similar appearance, save that the Tricolor displaced the Stars and Stripes in the hands of the man at the apex.

"The President drove through the square amid the deep thunder of cheering. As the second carriage, bearing Mrs. Wilson, Miss Wilson and Mme. Poincaré, half hidden in high-piled flowers, passed the Obelisk in the centre of the Place de la Concorde, marking the spot where once stood the grim Altar of Freedom—the guillotine which once purged France of despotism—Mrs. Wilson bent forward with a smile and a little gesture toward a typical Paris gamin astride the end of the fifteen-foot barrel of a long six-inch German gun placed close to the pedestal of the Obelisk.

"Balancing himself there on the foe's deadliest weapon, the boy waved an American flag in his right hand and a Tricolor in his left. It was a queer little symbol of the union of France and America in victory."

PRESIDENT POINCARE'S WELCOME

In welcoming President Wilson at a luncheon in the Elysée Palace Dec. 14 President Poincaré said:

Even before America had resolved to intervene in the struggle she had shown to the wounded and to the orphans of France a solicitude and a generosity the memory of which will always be enshrined

in our hearts. The liberality of your Red Cross, the countless gifts of your fellow-citizens, the inspiring initiative of American women, anticipated your military and naval action, and showed the world to which side your sympathies inclined. And on the day when you flung yourselves into the battle, with what determination your great people and yourself prepared for united success!

Some months ago you cabled to me that the United States would send ever-increasing forces until the day should be reached on which the allied armies were able to submerge the enemy under an overwhelming flow of new divisions; and, in effect, for more than a year a steady stream of youth and energy has been poured upon the shores of France.

No sooner had they landed than your gallant battalions, fired by their chief, General Pershing, flung themselves into the combat with such a manly contempt of danger, such a smiling disregard of death, that our longer experience of this terrible war often moved us to counsel prudence. They brought with them, in arriving here, the enthusiasm of the Crusaders leaving for the Holy Land. It is their right today to look with pride upon the work accomplished and to rest assured that they have powerfully aided by their courage and their faith.

Eager as they were to meet the enemy, they did not know when they arrived the enormity of his crimes. That they might know how the German armies make war it has been necessary that they see towns systematically burned down, mines flooded, factories reduced to ashes, orchards devastated, cathedrals shelled and fired—all that deliberate savagery, aimed to destroy national wealth, nature, and beauty, which the imagination could not conceive at a distance from the men and things that have endured it and today bear witness.

In your turn, Mr. President, you will be able to measure with your own eyes the extent of these disasters, and the French Government will make known to you the authentic documents in which the German General Staff developed with astounding cynicism its program of pillage and industrial annihilation. Your noble conscience will pronounce a verdict on these facts. Should this guilt remain unpunished, could it be renewed, the most splendid victories would be in vain.

Mr. President: France has struggled, has endured, and has suffered during four long years; she has bled at every vein; she has lost the best of her children; she mourns for her youths. She yearns now, even as you do, for a peace of justice and security.

It was not that she might be exposed once again to aggression that she submitted to such sacrifices. Nor was it in order that criminals should go unpun-

ished, that they might lift their heads again to make ready for new crimes, that, under your strong leadership, America armed herself and crossed the ocean.

Faithful to the memory of Lafayette and Rochambeau, she came to the aid of France, because France herself was faithful to her traditions. Our common ideal has triumphed. Together we have defended the vital principles of free nations. Now we must build together such a peace as will forbid the deliberate and hypocritical renewing of an organism aiming at conquest and oppression.

Peace must make amends for the misery and sadness of yesterday, and it must be a guarantee against the dangers of tomorrow. The association which has been formed for the purpose of war, between the United States and the Allies, and which contains the seed of the permanent institutions of which you have spoken so eloquently, will find from this day forward a clear and profitable employment in the concerted search for equitable decisions and in the mutual support which we need if we are to make our rights prevail.

Whatever safeguards we may erect for the future, no one, alas, can assert that we shall forever spare to mankind the horrors of new wars. Five years ago the progress of science and the state of civilization might have permitted the hope that no Government, however autocratic, would have succeeded in hurling armed armies upon Belgium and Serbia.

Without lending ourselves to the illusion that posterity will be forevermore safe from these collective follies, we must introduce into the peace we are going to build all the conditions of justice and all the safeguards of civilization that we can embody in it. To such a vast and magnificent task, Mr. President, you have chosen to come and apply yourself in concert with France. France offers you her thanks. She knows the friendship of America. She knows your rectitude and elevation of spirit. It is in the fullest confidence that she is ready to work with you.

PRESIDENT WILSON'S REPLY

President Wilson replied as follows:

Mr. President: I am deeply indebted to you for your gracious greeting. It is very delightful to find myself in France and to feel the quick contact of sympathy and unaffected friendship between the representatives of the United States and the representatives of France.

You have been very generous in what you were pleased to say about myself, but I feel that what I have said and what I have tried to do has been said and done only in an attempt to speak the thought of the people of the United States truly, and to carry that thought out in action.

From the first, the thought of the people of the United States turned toward something more than the mere winning of this war. It turned to the establishment of eternal principles of right and justice. It realized that merely to win the war was not enough; that it must be won in such a way and the questions raised by it settled in such a way as to insure the future peace of the world and lay the foundations for the freedom and happiness of its many peoples and nations.

Never before has war worn so terrible a visage or exhibited more grossly the debasing influence of illicit ambitions. I am sure that I shall look upon the ruin wrought by the armies of the Central Empires with the same repulsion and deep indignation that they stir in the hearts of men of France and Belgium, and I appreciate, as you do, Sir, the necessity of such action in the final settlement of the issues of the war as will not only rebuke such acts of terror and spoliation, but make men everywhere aware that they cannot be ventured upon without the certainty of just punishment.

I know with what ardor and enthusiasm the soldiers and sailors of the United States have given the best that was in them to this war of redemption. They have expressed the true spirit of America. They believe their ideals to be acceptable to free peoples everywhere, and are rejoiced to have played the part they have played in giving reality to those ideals in co-operation with the armies of the Allies. We are proud of the part they have played, and we are happy that they should have been associated with such comrades in common cause.

It is with peculiar feeling, Mr. President, that I find myself in France joining with you in rejoicing over the victory that has been won. The ties that bind France and the United States are peculiarly close. I do not know in what other comradeship we could have fought with more zest or enthusiasm. It will daily be a matter of pleasure with me to be brought into consultation with the statesmen of France and her allies in concerting the measures by which we may secure permanence for these happy relations of friendship and co-operation, and secure for the world at large such safety and freedom in its life as can be secured only by the constant association and co-operation of friends.

I greet you not only with deep personal respect, but as the representative of the great people of France, and beg to bring to you the greetings of another great people to whom the fortunes of France are of profound and lasting interest.

In an address to a Socialist delegation the same day, President Wilson said:

Gentlemen: I received with great inter-

est the address which you have just read to me. The war through which we have just passed has illustrated in a way which never can be forgotten the extraordinary wrongs which can be perpetrated by arbitrary and irresponsible power.

It is not possible to secure the happiness and prosperity of the world, to establish an enduring peace, unless the repetition of such wrongs is rendered impossible. This has indeed been a peoples' war. It has been waged against absolutism and militarism, and these enemies of liberty must from this time forth be shut out from the possibility of working their cruel will upon mankind.

In my judgment, it is not sufficient to establish this principle. It is necessary that it should be supported by a co-operation of the nations which shall be based upon fixed and definite covenants, and which shall be made certain of effective action through the instrumentality of a League of Nations. I believe this to be the conviction of all thoughtful and liberal men.

I am confident that this is the thought of those who lead your own great nation, and I am looking forward with peculiar pleasure to co-operating with them in securing guarantees of a lasting peace of justice and right dealing which shall justify the sacrifices of this war and cause men to look back upon those sacrifices as the dramatic and final processes of their emancipation.

The arrival of the President in France evoked an outburst of enthusiasm from all the allied and neutral countries of Europe. Resolutions were adopted by popular assemblies or official bodies acclaiming the President and bidding him welcome.

AT THE MURAT MANSION

The President during his stay in Paris occupied the home of Prince and Princess Joachim Murat, 28 Rue de Monceau. The ancient mansion is one of the most imposing and richly furnished in the city; it contains various souvenirs of General George Washington, whose niece married Prince Achille Murat. The President's host is a son of Prince Joachim, who was born at Bordentown, N. J., in 1834, and is a descendant of Caroline Bonaparte, sister of Napoleon. Princess Murat, before her marriage, was Cecile Ney, Duchess d'Elchingen. Both Murat and Ney were Marshals in the Napoleonic armies.

On Dec. 16 at the City Hall the President was officially made a "citizen of

Paris." In the course of the ceremonies he was presented with the great gold medal of the City of Paris, and to Mrs. Wilson was given a diamond brooch. In his speech there the President said:

We were more deeply moved by the wrongs of the war because we knew the manner in which they were perpetrated. I beg that you will not suppose that because a wide ocean separated us in space, we were not in effect eyewitnesses of the shameful ruin that was wrought and the cruel and unnecessary sufferings that were brought upon you. These sufferings have filled our hearts with indignation. We know what they were, not only, but we know what they signified, and our hearts were touched to the quick by them, our imaginations filled with the whole picture of what France and Belgium in particular had experienced.

When the United States entered the war, therefore, they entered it not only because they were moved by a conviction that the purposes of the Central Empires were wrong and must be resisted by men everywhere who loved liberty and the right, but also because the illicit ambitions which they were entertaining and attempting to realize had led to the practices which shocked our hearts as much as they offended our principles. Our resolution was formed because we knew how profoundly great principles of right were affected, but our hearts moved also with our resolution.

You have been exceedingly generous in

what you have been gracious enough to say about me—generous far beyond my personal deserts, but you have interpreted with real insight the motives and resolution of the people of the United States. Whatever influence I exercise, whatever authority I speak with, I derive from them. I know what they have thought, I know what they have desired, and when I have spoken what I know was in their minds it has been delightful to see how the consciences and purposes of freemen everywhere responded. We have merely established our right to the full fellowship of those peoples here and throughout the world who reverence the right of genuine liberty and justice.

President Wilson's addresses were cordially received by the French press, and the warmth of the popular welcome seemed to grow as the days passed. Vast throngs waited for hours to see him pass, and wherever he appeared he was loudly acclaimed. The first week of his stay in Paris was busily employed in conferences, which were interrupted by festivities on the 19th, when the King of Italy, accompanied by the Queen, the Crown Prince, the Premier, and the Foreign Minister, arrived in Paris. During the conferences that ensued between President Wilson and King Emmanuel the latter formally invited the President to visit him at the Quirinal in Rome.

The Ishmaelite of Nations

By JAMES CHURCH ALVORD

[First Printed in The New York Times of Dec. 4, 1918]

The Ishmaelite of Nations, she shall wait
Until the crawling centuries mute again
The hideous echoes of her Hymn of Hate.
Cursed by the world's immeasurable disdain,
Cursed by the tears a million mothers shed,
Cursed on the fields where countless boys lie dead,
Whimpering for mercy, blustering, desolate—
The Ishmaelite shall wait.

By rotting wharves her empty ships shall rock,
Her slattern towns their poverty proclaim,
Her high-towered factories topple block by block
Since "Made in Germany" is a brand of shame.
Thrust from the Door of Human Brotherhood,
Misunderstanding and misunderstood,
Beggared, unpardoned, excommunicate—
The Ishmaelite shall wait.

Gray skulls plow up through fields of Picardy,
Great fanes lift shattered arches to the dawn,
Where once dead babies strewed the bitter sea
The cliffs still whiten in undying scorn.
Down weary years shall men, beholding this,
Turn from her bribes and pleading with a hiss,
Sullen, unpitied in her self-sought fate—
The Ishmaelite shall wait.

Troop Movements Under Armistice

Full Summary of the Movements of the Allied Armies of Occupation and Their Positions on the Rhine

[UP TO DEC. 18, 1918]

WHEN Germany capitulated on Nov. 11 she had on the western front seventeen armies made up of approximately 3,000,000 bayonets, of which four armies—those of Below, Marwitz, Hutier, and Carlowitz—were on the actual line of combat. Facing them under the supreme command of Marshal Foch were the following allied armies:

	Combat Troops.
Two Belgian	300,000
Five British.....	1,500,000
Three American.....	1,338,169
Ten French.....	2,500,000
One Italian, plus Polish and Czechoslovak detachments.....	300,000
Total	5,938,169

According to the terms of the armistice the German troops were obliged to evacuate Belgium, France, Luxemburg, and Alsace-Lorraine by Nov. 25, and all the terrain west of the Rhine and east of it for a distance of ten kilometers, and at Cologne, Coblenz, and Mayence (Mainz) semicircles with a radius of thirty kilometers, by Dec. 11.

The Germans at once began their retreat. The armies selected to occupy the evacuated territory were the following:

		For Rhine Zones.
All the Belgians.....	300,000	200,000
Two British.....	350,000	300,000
One American.....	470,000	250,000
Three and then two French	550,000	400,000
Total	1,670,000	1,150,000

The retreat of the German Army under Hindenburg was conducted by the transportation expert, General Groener. On reaching its several corps headquarters it was to be demobilized, save the troops of the classes of 1898 and 1899. There is a report that the class of 1897 is also to be retained.

Neither in France nor in Great Britain is demobilization under way, but in many cases indeterminate furloughs have been granted large bodies of men. New legislation is being projected in these countries for the establishment of national armies without conscription. There is no prospect of an early demobilization of the Italian Armies.

The United States, both here and abroad, at once began the work of demobilization. On Nov. 11 there were in training in American camps 1,700,000 men of all classes. In Europe there were, including the combat troops in France and small detachments in Russia and Italy, and 18,000 in England, 1,890,624—the total sent over of 2,053,347, minus 262,723 casualties. To date (Dec. 18) there have been discharged from the army in training 750,000 men, and there have arrived at American ports, including casualties, about 70,000, the majority of whom have been discharged.

In Germany prisoners numbering 1,500,000, including about 2,000 Americans, have been released. German prisoners numbering 1,200,000 in England and France are still detained under the terms of the armistice. Italy is retaining over 700,000 Austrian and German prisoners.

THE AREAS OCCUPIED

By Dec. 18 the Belgians had occupied and organized their corner of Rhenish Prussia. They had marched 160 miles, having been obliged to skirt the Limburg Province of Holland to the south. Their administrative terrain, excluding the 6.2 miles neutral belt on the eastern bank of the Rhine, amounts to about 700 square miles.

The British armies marched on the average of 150 miles, and occupy and administer a terrain of 2,500 square miles. In the area of the Cologne bridge-

head zone the lax rule of the advance detachments has been altered to rigid martial law imposed by General Plumer.

The Americans, having marched 160 miles, principally through the Moselle Valley, are administering a terrain of 3,000 square miles. General Pershing's headquarters is at Treves; there also General Preston Brown administers the region as Military Governor and General Harry A. Smith as Civil Governor. On Dec. 16 the American detachments completed their occupation of the semicircular zone on the eastern or right bank of the Rhine, enveloping Coblenz, and replaced the red flag by the Stars and Stripes over the ancient German fortress of Ehrenbreitstein. In the Coblenz zone are 40,000 American troops.

The French terrain of occupation was covered after a march of 170 miles, and includes an area of over 4,000 square miles. Their zone of administration reaches to the suburbs of Frankfort, which is in the neutral zone beyond. At Mayence General Fayolle is in command. To the south the civil administration of Alsace-Lorraine had been in vogue for twenty-three days on Dec. 18.

On Dec. 13 the German armistice, which would have expired on the 17th, (that is, thirty-six days after the signing on Nov. 11,) was extended in accordance with Article XXXIV. until Jan. 17. Meanwhile, its terms, with special reference to Articles II., (evacuation of occupied territory;) IV. and VII., (surrender of equipment;) V., (evacuation of German territory to and beyond the Rhine;) X., (repatriation of prisoners of war;) XXIII., (surrender of the German fleet,) and XVII., (evacuation of German East Africa,) have been carried out as follows, with the Belgians occupying the Rhine zone from the Dutch frontier to the bridgehead semicircle at Cologne, where General Plumer and the British are established, with the Americans under General Dickman in charge of the Coblenz bridgehead zone; with the French at the Mayence zone under General Fayolle, and from Mayence south to the Swiss frontier, with the ten-kilometer river zone in charge of the French:

MARCH THROUGH BELGIUM

Preceding the general advance of the allied armies of occupation over a front approximating 350 miles, begun on Nov. 17, a force of 25,000 German troops at Maeseyck, Belgium, on Nov. 13, desiring to reach Germany via the Dutch province of Limburg, surrendered their arms to the Dutch and proceeded that way without them. Antwerp was occupied on Nov. 15 by the Belgians, due to a special arrangement with the German Main Headquarters at Spa.

When the general advance was begun two days later, the Belgian Army had on its right two British armies, the Second under General Plumer and the Fourth under General Rawlinson. On their right was the French Fourth Army, commanded by General Gouraud. These armies were to reoccupy Belgium and reach the Prussian frontier by Nov. 25, whence the Belgian and British armies were to advance upon the Rhine to their allotted places.

At the end of the first day's march the Belgians had reached the general line Baesrode-Termonde-Alost and had sent forward a cavalry brigade reinforced with artillery and cyclist carabineers toward Brussels, and a cavalry regiment to Malines. The British had reached the line of Oexfontaine, Pry, Pieton, La Louvière, Soignies, Enghien, and south of Ninove, the last place being about fifteen miles west of Brussels. The French had crossed the Franco-Belgian frontier after occupying the towns of Sedan and Bouillon, passing Mariembourg, Corvin, and Fumay, on their left, crossing the Semoy and reaching Carignan.

While the Belgians advanced to occupy towns as soon as they were informed that the Germans had evacuated them, which was invariably ahead of the schedule time, the British and French moved as planned. Thus on the 18th the British had only reached the line Florrennes-Charleroi-Seneffe-Hal and the latter the line Bourseigne-Vielle-Rienne. On the morning of Nov. 22 King Albert entered Brussels with the royal family and a large body of troops. The British were rapidly approaching the

Prussian-Belgian frontier, where they were to link up with the Third American Army at Vianden on the Prussian-Luxemburg frontier. The French in the angle thus formed were leisurely occupying the Belgian towns east of the line, Offange, Bertrix, Straimont, Jamoigne.

On the 24th the British, one day ahead of schedule time, reached the Prussian frontier north of the Duchy of Luxemburg, with their line on the frontier south of Beho, Grand Mesnil, Bomal, Huy, east of Avennes. The French line in Belgium and Luxemburg was Wiltz, Noville, and Nadrin, while a French cavalry detachment had reached the Prussian-Luxemburg line on the left of the Americans already there.

INTO PRUSSIA

According to the terms of the armistice the Germans had an additional sixteen days in which to evacuate the Rhine province and certain smaller States on the left bank of the Rhine. Together these form a triangular terrain with the base composed of Lorraine and Alsace, the east side bounded by the Rhine and the west by the Dutch, Belgian, Luxemburg, and part of the Lorraine frontiers. The Belgian and British armies which had marched through Belgium were to occupy this terrain along the Rhine from the Dutch frontier as far south as Oberwinter, including the bridgehead of Cologne.

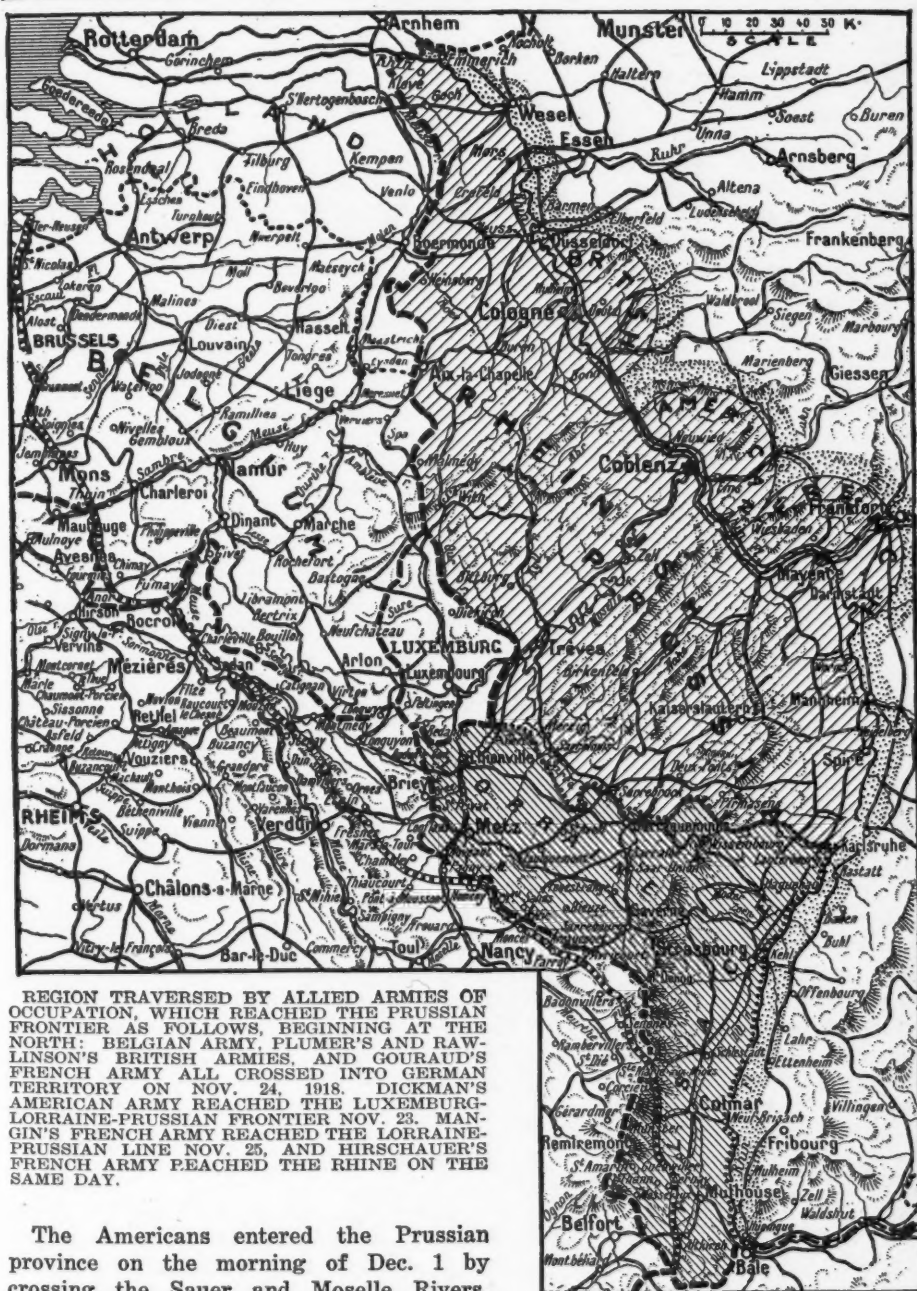
British cavalry patrols reached Spa on Nov. 29 and the next day began their advance on Cologne. On Dec. 1 General Plumer's army crossed the frontier between Beho and Eupen and by evening had reached the line Hurg, Reuland, Bullingen, and Montjoie. On the evening of the 6th the British had reached the line toward the Cologne bridgehead of Blankenheim, east of Schleiden, the River Erft, to the south of Grevenbroich. That same evening the Belgians on their left had reached with two cavalry detachments Düsseldorf, on the left bank of the Rhine, twenty-one miles northwest of Cologne. At both Düsseldorf and Aix-la-Chapelle, the Belgians employed for a few days the same discipline which the Germans had formerly used toward civilians in Belgian communities.

On Dec. 6 Cologne was also entered by the advance guard of the British. On the 12th other British troops occupied the university town of Bonn, where the Kaiser was educated, and held the Rhine bridge there.

WITH THE AMERICAN ARMY

The Third American Army under Major Gen. Joseph T. Dickman, in large part drawn from the First and Second, consisting of the 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, 32d, and 42d Divisions, to which were added later the 7th Army Corps under Major Gen. Haan, composed of the 5th, 89th, and 90th Division, and the 26th Division under Brig. Gen. Frank E. Bamford, began its forward march on the morning of Nov. 17 from a fifty-mile front extending from Mouzon, on the Meuse River, southeast to beyond Fresnes. The six divisions (about 200,000) first mentioned led the advance, and by the evening of Nov. 19 had reached the line Longwy-Briey. At these places, both great centres of industry, they had the advantage of the railways leading down the Moselle. On the evening of the 20th they encamped on the outskirts of Luxemburg City, while their advance guard had crossed the frontier into Lorraine. By the 23d they were well through the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, and were preparing to be entrained in force for their journey down the Moselle. On that day the American front ran from Walendorf to Wasserbillig, along the Sauer River, and thence along the Moselle, and prepared to move on Treves, in Prussian territory.

Here the situation was unique. While the Germans were retiring along one bank of the river the Americans were passing along the other bank, each in sight of the other. Presently the Germans began sending back officers, requesting the Americans not to move so fast. The Germans, (von der Marwitz's Fifth Army,) unable to march so rapidly, were becoming confused. In fact, many traffic jams were visible, and so the Americans were compelled to slow down. Consequently they did not enter the Prussian province on Nov. 26, the first day on which the Germans were to begin their evacuation of that terrain.



REGION TRAVERSED BY ALLIED ARMIES OF OCCUPATION, WHICH REACHED THE PRUSSIAN FRONTIER AS FOLLOWS, BEGINNING AT THE NORTH: BELGIAN ARMY, PLUMER'S AND RAWLINSON'S BRITISH ARMIES, AND GOURAUD'S FRENCH ARMY ALL CROSSED INTO GERMAN TERRITORY ON NOV. 24, 1918. DICKMAN'S AMERICAN ARMY REACHED THE LUXEMBURG-LORRAINE-PRUSSIAN FRONTIER NOV. 23. MANGIN'S FRENCH ARMY REACHED THE LORRAINE-PRUSSIAN LINE NOV. 25, AND HIRSCHAUER'S FRENCH ARMY REACHED THE RHINE ON THE SAME DAY.

The Americans entered the Prussian province on the morning of Dec. 1 by crossing the Sauer and Moselle Rivers, and by night had established a line running through Winterscheid, Habscheid, Lichtenborn, Oberweis, Irrel, Kordel, Treves, Saarburg, and Serrig. The detachments south of the Moselle proceeded more rapidly than those north, and on Dec. 5 had reached the general line Berncastel - Malborn - Otzenhausen.

The next day at evening the whole front was represented by the line Effelsberg, Adenau, Albeck, Mürlenbach, Alfien, Dreis, Aldequip, Peterswald, Kostanz, Rhaunen, and Herstein, twenty miles west of the Rhine.

On Dec. 8 a battalion of American in-

fantry was entrained at Treves for Colblenz to maintain order there as soon as the last German soldier should have crossed the Rhine. It took over the policing of the city the next day. This battalion was from the 39th Infantry of the 4th Division. Late on Dec. 11 the four advance divisions of the American Army of Occupation completed their march to the Rhine. Of these the 1st, 2d, and 32d crossed the river and established the bridgehead on the 13th, flanked on the right by three French divisions. The terrain on the right bank thus occupied is in the form of a semicircle, starting from the Rhine on the north through Stefshard, Bolsheid, Rossbach, Hahn, Diez, and Katzenelnbogen, and swinging back to the Rhine at Oberwesel.

LORRAINE AND ALSACE

Between the signing of the armistice on Nov. 11 and Nov. 17, the first day of the general advance of the allied armies of occupation, the Tenth French Army, under General Mangin, moved to the Metz front, taking the place of the Second American and French Armies, which had been prepared to invade Lorraine when hostilities ceased, while in its turn the Second French Army was moved still further south, taking the place of the First French in Alsace.

The Tenth Army, with the American Third on its left, was to move northeast across Lorraine and the southern part of the Prussian province, including the Palatinate and Rhenish Hesse, taking possession of the bridgehead at Mayence and the left bank of the Rhine as far south as Lauterbourg, where it would have the Second French Army on its right, which meanwhile had proceeded through Alsace to the Rhine, covering the river zone from Lauterbourg to Huningue on the Swiss frontier.

The Government also appointed two Commissioners to administer the territory taken from France in 1871. Henry Poulet was to administer the region of Metz and Georges Meringer that of Strasbourg. The latter, who received the title of High Commissioner, however, would also administer the three divisions of Alsace-Lorraine, known before 1871 as

Upper Rhine, with the prefecture at Colmar; Lower Rhine, with the prefecture at Strasbourg, and Moselle, with the prefecture at Metz. General Maud'huy was appointed Military Governor of Metz and General Bourgeois of Strasbourg, when those cities should be occupied.

On the first day of the advance, Sunday, Nov. 17, the Tenth Army, which for a few days was to be commanded by General Lecomte in place of General Mangin, who had been injured by a fall from his horse, sent its vanguards to Gravelotte, the forts on the right bank of the Meuse south of Metz, and to Morhange and Dieuze. In Alsace the army reached Donon and Schirmeck.

On the right, the Second Army under General Hirschauer, a native of Alsace, reached the gates of Colmar and Eysenheim and went beyond Richécourt, Cirey, Château-Salins, Münster, Cernay, and Altkirsch. At noon General Hirschauer, at the head of the 169th Division, commanded by General Mainvielle, entered Mulhouse amid the delirious enthusiasm of its 50,000 inhabitants.

The next day, the 18th, the Tenth Army in the region south of Neuchâteau-en-Lorraine occupied St. Marie-aux-Chenes and Crehagne, on the St. Avold road, and skirted the Upper Sarre above Finestrang, making a solemn entry into Sarrebourg. Advance guards were posted at the gates of Wasselonne and Meusold, while further south the Second Army neared the Rhine from north of Neuf-Brisach to the Swiss frontier.

On Nov. 19 Pétain, created Marshal of the Republic by telephone, made his triumphal entry into Metz, the capital of Lorraine. He was accompanied by General Castelnau, Commander of the Eastern Army Group, and, in 1914, of the Second Army, and General Lecomte, with detachments of the Tenth Army. Meanwhile General Gouraud entered Saverne with picked detachments of the Fourth Army. The advance in Lorraine reached the line Kiereberg, Hemmorleng, Saverne, Allenvillers, and Wangen. Colmar, in Alsace, received the Second Army.

On Nov. 23 Strasbourg set its clocks to French time, and Marshal Foch, the Commander in Chief of the allied armies,

made his triumphal entry and crossed the River Ill, two miles west of the Rhine. Foch was accompanied by Marshal Pétain and Generals Castelnau and Gouraud.

By the 25th the Second Army, under General Hirschauer, had taken up its allotted posts along the Rhine in Alsace. To the northwest the Tenth Army was on the Lorraine-Prussian frontier.

Here the next day, between Merzig and Sarreguemines, on the Sarre River, occurred a curious incident when the French soldiers reached the Sarre across the frontier. Dr. Solf, the German Foreign Secretary, complained to the Associated Governments that they should not have entered the Prussian province until the 27th, which would have been the first of the sixteen additional days given the Germans for the evacuation. The only way to account for the incident is that Solf literally translated the French "quinze jours," in the Second Article of the armistice, into "Fünfzehn Tage"—or fifteen days instead of fourteen days, reckoned from Nov. 11.

By Dec. 3 the Tenth Army, however, had completely occupied the valley of the Sarre, with the Prussian towns Merzig, Sarrelouis, and Sarrebruck, (Saarbrücken,) and three days later General Mangin, who had recovered from his accident, was preparing to enter Mayence (Mainz) and establish the bridgehead there as stipulated in the armistice terms. On Dec. 10 the 13th and 43d Infantry Divisions of his army took possession of this great Rhine fortress, and in the following week crossed the river and occupied the bridgehead zone.

GERMAN FLEET SURRENDERS

According to Articles XXII. and XXIII. of the armistice of Nov. 11 a decisive percentage of the German high seas fleet, including all the submarines, was to be handed over to the Allies and the United States. The details of the surrender were arranged Nov. 17 between Rear Admiral Hugo Meurer, the plenipotentiary of the German naval command, who came on the German light cruiser Königsberg, and the Commander in Chief of the Grand Fleet, Admiral Sir David

Beatty, on board the latter's flagship, the Queen Elizabeth, lying in the Firth of Forth. The German Admiral had commanded the battleship König in the battle of Jutland. The surrender of the major portion of the surface fleet took place in the North Sea, fifty miles east of the Firth of Forth, on Nov. 18, as described in detail elsewhere in these pages. The surrender of the submarines was made to Rear Admiral Reginald W. Tyrwhitt at Harwich, beginning two days later. Among the last to be given up was the Deutschland, alias U-153, well known for its voyage to American waters. The total of surrendered U-boats was 129.

IN REDEEMED ITALY

The day before the Austro-Hungarian capitulation to General Diaz, Italian troops had occupied Dobereto and Trent in the Trentino, had reclaimed about half of the Regione di Veneto—their cavalry having penetrated beyond Belluno in the northeast and Udine in the east—and had taken possession of the coastal cities of Trieste and Pola. The territory to be evacuated by the enemy, according to the terms of the armistice, was approximately identical with that conceded to Italy by Great Britain, France, and Russia in the Treaty of London, April 26, 1915, and was popularly known as "Italia Irredenta"—Unredeemed Italy.

As there was mutiny in the Austro-Hungarian Army, as the prisoners of the Associated Powers were to be immediately discharged, and as the German troops were to be sent home within fourteen days, General Diaz, according to the terms of the armistice, was to stipulate the distance to be traversed by the retreating enemy from day to day in order to avoid confusion. Moreover, in occupying the evacuated territory the fullest use possible was to be made of the American, French, and British troops bracketed with the Tenth Army under Lord Cavan, while in the coastal region—Istria, Croatia, Dalmatia—and the islands mentioned for occupation by the armies of the Associated Powers, not only the Italian Navy was concerned, but also naval detachments of Italy's allies

and of the United States to the extent of their operating forces. Meanwhile the 40,000 Czechoslovak soldiers mobilized by the Italians were entrained for Bohemia.

In spite of the most careful preparations made by the Italian General Staff considerable confusion ensued on account of the utter demoralization of the late enemy and his lack of food. By Nov. 17, however, the sole American regiment present, which had lost only one man killed and six wounded in the recent offensive, had occupied the City of Tolmino, whence had started the great enemy offensive of October, 1917, which had brought about the disaster of Caporetto. To the south Italian detachments had reached Novacco, Ottalesco, Idra, and Dolle. By the end of the month the Austro-Hungarian military authorities had completed the terms of the armistice as far as the evacuation was concerned and Italy was in full possession of the terrain to be occupied by her and the armies associated with her pending the final terms of the treaty of peace, and the confirmation in that treaty of the Treaty of London.

Nowhere did the occupying troops establish civil governments. In certain towns, notably Trent, Gorizia, and Trieste, the Italian population attempted to do so. This brought them into conflict with the Yugoslav elements and an unfortunate situation was developed at Fiume, which quickly spread to Pola and Trieste.

Fiume was just outside the terrain of evacuation; still, it has a predominating Italian population of 45,000. The Mayor was Italian, so was the Town Council. Armed bands of Yugoslavs under orders from the Yugoslav Council at Agram entered the town, forced the resignation of the Mayor and Town Council, and ordered them to take down the Italian flag and hoist the Yugoslav banner in its place. Gatherings of Italians to celebrate the Italian victory were dispersed by rifle and machine-gun fire. Italian soldiers on the heights above the city looked on and saw their fellow-countrymen thus terrorized and were powerless to help them until orders came from General Diaz for their commander, Gen-

eral Raineri, to take possession of Fiume and protect the Italians there. Meanwhile similar, although not so serious, Yugoslav demonstrations had taken place at Trieste and Pola, where they had been suppressed by the respective military Governors, General Petitti and Admiral Cagni.

THE ALLIES IN TURKEY

The capitulations which the Commissioners of Mohammed VI. were forced to accept from Vice Admiral Sir Somerset Gough-Calthorpe, the commander of the allied fleet, on the Island of Lemnos, Oct. 31, included the provision for the immediate occupation of Constantinople and the Dardanelles and Bosphorus forts, the surrender of all Turkish war vessels, the demobilization of the army, and the release of the allied prisoners of war.

The first British warship to reach Constantinople was a destroyer, which anchored in the Golden Horn on the afternoon of Nov. 10. A French destroyer followed. Both brought staff officers who were to organize the administration of the city. A few days before Enver Pasha and Talaat Pasha, the evil geniuses of Turkey, had made their escape to a Black Sea port on board a German destroyer, and are now said to be in Berlin.

Already, on Nov. 9, British troops had been landed on the peninsula of Gallipoli and had taken possession of the forts there and reoccupied the sites so full of the fatal memories of the Summer of 1915.

By Dec. 8 a military administration, under the direction of the British Vice Admiral as High Commissioner and Rear Admiral Richard Webb as assistant, was in full running order in Constantinople, while the Government of the Sultan was obeying its directions, particularly in regard to the distribution of food and of justice. The foreign consulate courts were restored.

On Nov. 26 an allied naval squadron passed through the Black Sea and took possession of the Russian ships at Sebastopol, which had been surrendered to the Germans by the Bolsheviks, and on Dec. 13 French marines arrived at Odesa and expelled the Germans who still

lingered there. This littoral, as well as Rumania, had been occupied by the German army of Field Marshal von Mackensen. Its movements were governed not by the Turkish capitulation of Oct. 31, but by the German armistice of Nov. 11, Articles XIII. and XIV. This army numbered 170,000 men. On its way back to Germany its path lay through Hungary, where on Nov. 30, on the demand of the French Commissioners at Budapest,

it was interned. It had already been partially disarmed at its stations in Rumania and on the Black Sea littoral.

The German commander in East Africa, General von Lettow-Vorbeck, did not comply at once with the terms of the armistice of Nov. 11, though his force had been reduced to 1,000 natives and 300 Germans. On Nov. 14, however, he surrendered near Kasama, on the Zambezi, in Northern Rhodesia.

The Allied Armies in Germany

Advance of American, French, and British Troops Into Germany Described by Eyewitnesses

[SEE ROTOGRAVURE MAP OF GERMAN OCCUPIED TERRITORY IN FRONTISPICE PAGES]

THE British, American, and French Armies of Occupation, to name them in their order from the Holland frontier to the Swiss border, all reached the boundaries of Germany on or about Nov. 23; so well organized was the advance that they all set foot on German soil within two days. The withdrawal of the Germans was conducted in an orderly and systematic manner, the main bodies keeping two or three days' march ahead of the advancing allies. On Nov. 23 the American Third Army reached the German border, its front extending from Wallendorf to Wasserbillig along the Sauer River, and from there south along the Moselle. The Germans occupied the opposite banks of the narrow streams, but there was no fraternizing, as rigid orders to that effect had been issued by General Dickman, the American commander.

AMERICANS ENTER GERMANY

The American Army of Occupation entered Germany Dec. 1, 1918, crossing the Sauer and Moselle Rivers and spreading out on a front of sixty miles. Treves, the first important city reached, was occupied the same day. Edwin L. James, the correspondent of The New York Times and CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE, described this on Dec. 1 as follows:

"The City of Treves greeted the American Army of Occupation today with sullen, glowering mien. The reception in Treves was just like that all along the ninety-kilometer front on which the Third Army advanced into Germany this morning. It was Sunday, but no church bells rang. There were no flags, no cheers, no smiles, few tears. It was just such a reception as only the boche could give.

"It was just 5:30 o'clock this morning, exactly one month after they broke through the German line north of Verdun and made the now-famous dash toward Sedan, that the Americans quit hospitable Luxemburg for their trek into what the late and unlamented Kaiser used to call the sacred soil of the Fatherland.

"To one watching those businesslike lads cross the international bridge of Wasserbillig in the sickly light of a cloudy dawn they seemed to march just as they did, not so long ago, when the same lads were going into the hell which lasted five weeks over in the Meuse sector. Who could have told them a month ago that today they would be marching foot-free into the land of the enemy? But into Germany they marched, their eyes straight ahead, their rifles held tight, and their cartridge clips filled. There was nothing of the popular con-

ception of a conquering army about them. They were solemn-faced lads, businesslike and quiet, and, above all, ready for whatever was to come.

SCENES IN TREVES

"The feature of the day's advance into the territory of the foe was their entrance into Treves, a city of 75,000 population, rich and important in manufactures. On our reception there the eyes of every American commander were turned. It was felt that the reception there meant the measure of distance from the Luxemburg border to the Rhineland.

"I got into the city an hour before the troops arrived. The streets and squares were lined with people. There were civilians in silk hats; there were soldiers in half uniform, demobilized, some of them only two days; there were officers in arrogantly splendid uniforms; there were women with furs and women in ragged clothes, and everywhere many, many children.

"One was impressed by the general prosperous and sleek appearance of the whole city. The shop windows were well filled with all sorts of merchandise; the meat shops were far from empty. There was that air that one used to see about captured German officers—the same sullen apathy, the same insolent and disdainful manner. To one who smiled, many frowned; but most simply stood there and stared. We went out on the bridge over the beautiful Moselle to await the coming of the Americans.

"It was just at 1 o'clock, German time, that Colonel Hunt appeared, leading the 6th Infantry of the 5th Division, which is to be the permanent garrison of the city during our occupation. Behind him came a brass band, formed by doughboys, who were a full regiment strong, and a company of machine guns. They were neat and nifty, these victorious young Americans, as they marched so solemnly into this Hun city.

SILENT HOSTILITY

"It was so different from the entry into French and Belgian towns, where the smiles of little children and blessings and joyful tears of grown folks had

greeted us. Here was hostility lurking beneath the smirking surface hospitality of the Hun. I turned and marched with the head of the column into the ancient city, the German name of which is Trier.

"No American was there but loved that bandmaster. He must have come from south of the Mason and Dixon Line, for as Colonel Hunt set foot into the city the strains of 'Dixie' broke out. The tune quickened the heartbeats and footsteps of the Americans, but of all those thousands of Germans who lined our path none showed the least feeling except the little children, who smiled at the soldiers, as all children will.

"The crowd grew denser and denser as we reached the square. Here a band broke into 'Suwanee River,' and just then the standard bearer gave the Stars and Stripes an extra whirl, and the column passed on by the ancient Porta Nigra to their barracks.

"After the triumphal and glorious march through France and Belgium and even Luxemburg the appalling silence almost frightened one. There was gloom everywhere. Even the German flags and arches which had welcomed the returning boche soldiers had been put away, and nothing remained undone to make the ceremony more sombre.

CONTACT WITH SOVIETS

"One noticeable feature of the crowd was the presence of a large number of men with rifles slung across their shoulders, muzzle down. Each wore a white band with a purple stamp. These were the guards of the local Soldiers' and Workmen's Council. They will be relieved of duty tomorrow and replaced by Americans.

"The local Soviets have given effusive orders to the population to treat the Americans with all order and good behavior. A special proclamation to girls warns them against talking to American soldiers. The American commander tomorrow will post proclamations telling the population that there will be no trouble if the Germans do not make it. The Germans will be given to understand that we mean business and that no foolishness will be tolerated. If the Germans all along behave as they did in Treves today

and keep ill-feelings to themselves there will be no friction. If trouble starts anywhere on our sector the Americans are ready to deal with it.

"One was deeply impressed by the quiet dignity of the American soldiers today. These lads whistled and joked and played mouth-organs while going into battle, but marching through Germany today there wasn't a smile on their faces or a joke on their lips. They were dead serious.

EVIDENCE OF PROSPERITY

"This industrial centre appears sleek and prosperous, and the persons of its inhabitants show no ravages of hunger. The bread is poor and of coffee there is none. Otherwise food can be had of many kinds.

"It seems that at the time when America is ready to stint herself and her friends to feed unrepentant Germany, a statement should be made that the food conditions here today are better than in that part of France recently occupied by the Germans. And the German Army has just passed through this place.

"Three days ago I ate this luncheon in Nancy at the Café Liégeoise: Fish, beefsteak, potatoes, and salad, paying for it an equivalent of \$3.25. Yesterday, at the Hotel Porta Nigra here, I ate fish, beefsteak, potatoes, and salad and paid an equivalent of \$2.50. The two places were about of the same class.

"One may buy a dinner here cheaper than in Paris, with the same grade of service. The cafés are well filled at all meals, and the tables seem well loaded. The meat shops are not badly supplied. An abundance of canned goods may be seen in the windows of the shops along the Sigonstrasse.

"It is true that retail prices at the stores are high, which means perhaps that poor people have difficulty in getting what they need. But there is food aplenty for those with money to pay, and in the last twenty-four hours I have heard a score of Americans say that perhaps Germany had better make a readjustment of her own food supply before calling on America."

The advance toward the Rhine con-

tinued in an orderly manner; the troops met with no resistance, but the people generally were silent and sullen, blinds were drawn as the troops passed, and the people remained indoors. On Dec. 8, in compliance with a request of the German command, a battalion of American infantry went by train from Treves to Coblenz to maintain order in the period between the departure of the retiring German Army and the arrival of the Americans. A battalion of the 39th Infantry of the 4th Division was sent. The main army reached Coblenz four days later.

GREETINGS AT COBLENZ

Under date of Dec. 9 Mr. James reported the reception of the American vanguard at Coblenz as follows:

"The reception of the Americans here was very different from that at Treves. There sullen silence greeted us everywhere. Here smiling delegations met us; pretty girls waved hands and handkerchiefs.

"The river promenade was crowded with the curious, who were in remarkably good humor. Every one seems anxious to do what can be done for the Americans. One walks along the boardwalk here, which, if one did not look across the picturesque Rhine, one might imagine the Atlantic City promenade, and one rubs one's eyes to make one's self believe that this is a vanquished nation.

"A German officer took me for a walk late in the afternoon. Thousands of well-dressed men and handsomely gowned women thronged the boulevard along the Rhine, the crowd in front of the magnificent Coblenzerhof reminding one of a Fifth Avenue holiday parade. The shop windows were filled with luxuries of every description. I bought excellent cigars and Waldorf-Astoria cigarettes.

"My German guide took me into the city's finest tearoom. Here was matched the tearoom in Sherry's any December afternoon. Silks and satins and furs were on all sides. The tearoom itself was ornate and luxurious in its appointments.

"Last night the cafés were filled with

merrymakers up to 11 o'clock, and the theatres were running full blast. The gayety was as if Germany had won and not lost the war. The world knows Coblenz as one of the beautiful cities of Europe, and certainly the German defeat has dimmed none of its glory. Blooming prosperity is everywhere apparent, and if there is any scarcity of food I have not been able to find it. The famous old Monopol Hotel and the Coblenzerhof and numerous restaurants serve meals that would tickle the palate of an epicure.

"At almost any other time one would have felt happy to be here; but now, seeing Goblentz, one at once remembers Rheims. Seeing Coblenz sleek and prosperous, one feels that Germany is not yet repentant.

"The Mayor of Coblenz issued a proclamation in which he requested the inhabitants to refrain from all acts of discourtesy or violence and to accord the Americans such assistance as was possible. A local committee was appointed to assist the Americans in assuming control, and officers of the German Army remained behind after the last of their men had marched out, in order to deliver to the Americans great stores of supplies.

"The officers with Colonel Rhea are Colonel Clarence Sherrill of Greensboro, N. C.; Colonel George Spaulding of Michigan, and Colonel Henry M. White of Kentucky.

"While the Americans were marching into the city today the last division of the German Army was only a few kilometers beyond the Rhine, moving in orderly fashion, with the spirit of a holiday rather than that of a defeated army. Almost every man had a rosette or a sprig of green in his cap. Many of the trucks and wagons had on top of them quantities of Christmas greens."

CROSSING THE RHINE

The American Army crossed the Rhine on Dec. 13. The advance divisions completed their march on the 11th, resting in the suburbs of Coblenz. The Americans on Dec. 10 took possession of the great fortress of Ehrenbreitstein, one of the most formidable in Germany; on Dec. 16 the Stars and Stripes flew upon

the flagstaff where for a hundred years the German standard had remained undisturbed. The fort was occupied by the 7th Field Artillery, commanded by Colonel Francis of Washington, D. C. It had been evacuated by German detachments on Dec. 9. On the 11th the entire German Army was nine miles from the Rhine. On Dec. 12 Mr. James wrote:

"One month after the cessation of hostilities found the Americans yesterday on the Rhine River along most of the sector to be occupied by them. Since they entered Germany on Dec. 1 not one shot has been fired. The reception, however, becomes more strained the deeper they get into Germany. The people are beginning to show irritation at our presence. This is more pronounced in the cities than in the smaller places, and in the last two days in Coblenz, where there is a strong pro-Kaiser faction, an inclination has been shown to sneer at the Americans.

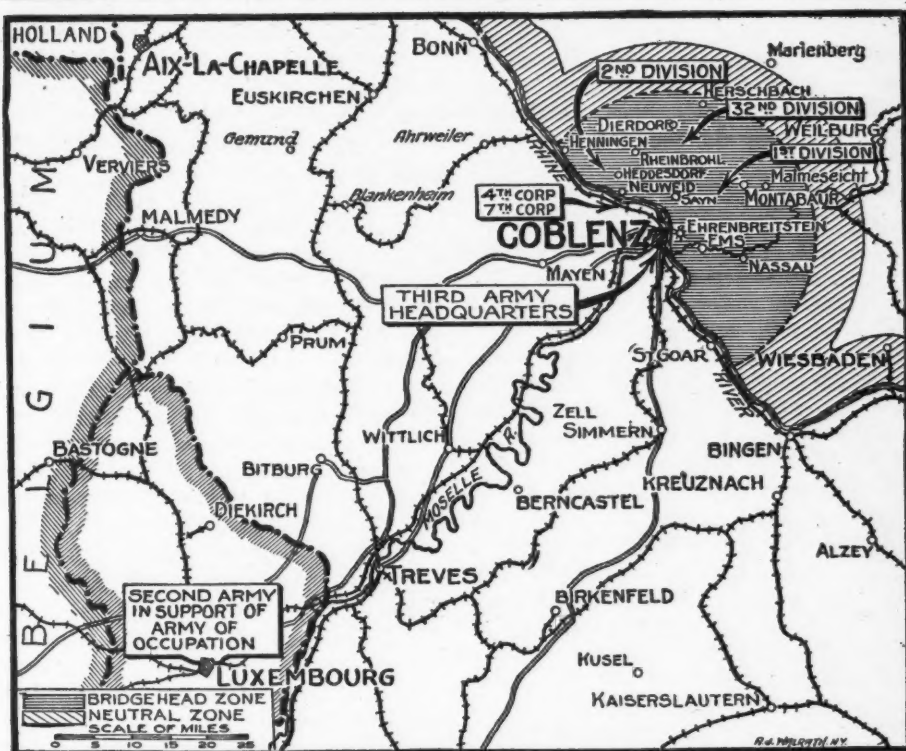
"It is too early to say that this is serious. The failure of the Americans to respond to the starvation propaganda treatment seems to be followed by a disposition of some persons here to be boastful. One may predict that they will be cured.

"In the smaller towns the Americans are well treated, and are responding in kind. For there are today only 1,000 men here for police duty, having come at the request of the German High Command. Perhaps the display of force which will take place when we occupy the city will have a salutary effect. The Volkszeitung of Mayen, where the Third Army has its headquarters, says of the Americans: 'The troops are well behaved, their intercourse with the people is correct, and we willingly admit that the Americans are good fellows.'

OCCUPYING THE BRIDGEHEAD

The Americans took formal control of Coblenz on Dec. 12, and the Army of Occupation crossed the Rhine on the morning of the 13th to occupy the bridgehead beyond the city. Mr. James described the crossing as follows:

"Just before crossing three French divisions were put in to take over the



LOCATION OF AMERICAN FORCES ON THE RHINE

southern part of our sector across the river, and one American division, the 3d, composed of regulars, was sent south to take over part of the French bridgehead at Mainz.

"The 1st, 2d, and 32d American Divisions comprised the force which went over the river Dec. 13. The 1st crossed over the old pontoon bridge, the 32d and the French using the big Coblenz bridge. It was raining and just getting light when the troops started over, but the American flag was waving and bands were playing.

"The people were out to see the first crossing of the Rhine by hostile troops in more than a century. The doughboys marched over in an undramatic manner, just as they crossed the Moselle, into the Fatherland. The aged crest of the Ehrenbreitstein Fortress looked down in impotence as the men in khaki went on their way to make sure that Germany could not start the war again.

"The area to be occupied across the river is in the form of a semicircle with

the Rhine as the diameter and a thirty-kilometer radius. This semicircle may be traced, starting at the Rhine on the north at Linz, then through Stefshard, Bolsheid, Rossbach, Hahn, Diez, and Katzenelnbogen to the Rhine at Oberwesel. Outside this semicircle is a ring ten kilometers wide, which is a neutral zone to be policed by Germans not in force.

PLAYED AMERICAN AIRS

"As the various detachments reached the boundaries of the bridgehead the infantrymen marched into the towns behind bands playing spirited American airs. In some instances the bands gave concerts for the benefit of the natives while the infantrymen hustled about looking for quarters. The men of the bridgehead force as they reached the limits of the great arc began settling down for a rest after their hike from the battleline in France, which began just four weeks ago. Different units all along the line are in the occupied villages. The

officers are using public buildings as headquarters, but are being billeted in hotels and private homes.

"For three days the Americans streamed across the four bridges spanning the Rhine. The two bridges at Coblenz were particularly burdened, even during part of the night. With the first troops, who crossed Dec. 13, went some camions with temporary supplies. Dec. 14 streams of motor trucks, loaded with food, clothing, and gasoline, rumbled along the cobblestone streets of Coblenz in greater numbers than the citizens had ever seen, notwithstanding the fact that Coblenz was formerly an important point for the German Army

"There were no hostile demonstrations anywhere. Sales of firearms were prohibited in Coblenz by orders of the Burgomaster, who is co-operating with the American forces. All civilians were directed to turn over their firearms to the municipal authorities. German militia-men and discharged soldiers, who have been assisting in police duties, were discharged by the Burgomaster's order preliminary to turning the municipal affairs entirely over to the Americans. All theatres and restaurants were affected by the order directing cafés to close at 11 o'clock. These places are forbidden to burn lights after that hour. Hotels were also affected, but in a lesser degree."

OCCUPATION COMPLETE

On Dec. 17 all the units of American forces assigned to the occupation of the

bridgehead at Coblenz had reached their destination. From left to right the first line American divisions in the bridgehead area were the 2d, 32d and 1st Divisions.

The 2d Division occupied the right bank of the Rhine to Henningen, with its headquarters at Hedesdorf. The 32d Division's line ran from Breitscheld, east to Herschbach, thence southeast through Alsbach to Sayn, which was the headquarters. The 1st Division was between the 32d and French headquarters at Montabaur.

The dividing line of the French and American parts of the bridgehead was the Lahn River from the Rhine to the region of Ems, whence the line zigzagged northeast to the region of Malmesicht, directly east of Montabaur.

The fortress of Ehrenbreitstein, often called the Gibraltar of the Rhine, just across the river from Coblenz, was being prepared for occupancy by the American troops on the 17th. It occupies more than 100 acres on a rocky promontory 400 feet above the river. Each night on the fortress summit the Germans built a great bonfire of the rubbish accumulated by the day's cleaning of the barracks and various other buildings, some of which were erected hundreds of years ago.

An American Post Office was established in Coblenz. Owing to fluctuation in the value of the German mark only French and American money was accepted. The official rate of exchange was 142 marks for 100 francs.

The French Advance to the Rhine

By WALTER DURANTY

THE French crossed the frontier of Germany proper today, [Dec. 2, 1918.] There was no demonstration anywhere or any sign of excitement on the part of the poilus in traversing the imaginary line drawn across the country that represents the ancient boundary mark of France and Germany before the war of 1870. For, although by the terms of the armistice the troops have been halted at

the said line for several days, there was nothing—owing to the incorporation of Alsace-Lorraine in the German Empire—in the way of sentry posts or customs boundaries to mark the old frontier; and when the order was given this morning for an advance, the men simply hoisted their packs on their shoulders and moved forward without more ado.

As far as the French are concerned, the armistice has robbed the conquest of

its glory—from the soldiers' point of view they might as well be engaged in a manoeuvre route march, such as they often knew in peace time. The whole affair is utterly staid and prosaic. Only the difference in language reminds the poilus that they are actually realizing their dream of invading Germany. Otherwise it is simply a change of billets. There is no excitement, no resistance, not even evidence of hostile feeling. The people of the country we are now traversing are simply apathetic. There are no cheers, no flags, no welcome; but, on the other hand, there are completeness of submission and concealment of every sign of ill-will—if, indeed, any is felt—which makes it hard to realize that we are actually in enemy territory. One has a feeling that respect for the uniform has been so impressed on the minds of these Germans that even soldiers of the enemy are regarded as something superior to themselves.

SUBSERVIENCE TO UNIFORMS

As one moves along the sidewalk of a German town or village people instinctively make way. It is not for friend or foe, but simply the uniform and rank marks of authority that they are considering. They have been so drilled to consider the soldier superior to the civilian and the officer a person to respect that they automatically pay the same homage to troops of the enemy. In private life there is a combination of this sentiment with a certain degree of apprehension.

One has a definite impression that these people have lived under the yoke of their own militarism hardly less grievously than the inhabitants of Alsace-Lorraine. True, for them it was not the yoke of an alien, but it was a yoke nevertheless, and even now they seem unable to realize that it is lifted from their necks. The Allies have fought to free France and Belgium, but it may well be that the bringing of liberty to Germany herself will not be the least part of their achievement.

In the meantime nothing could be more correct than the attitude of the troops and of the population. I saw a

poilu distributing slices of army bread and jam to a group of small children. As I passed he looked up and said, half apologetically: "Have you seen the nasty stuff they call bread hereabouts? These poor kids have tasted nothing better for ages, and I am giving them a little treat." There in a nutshell you have the attitude of the French Army in Germany. They came as victors over a hated foe, expecting at least the appearance of hostility. They found a submission which was almost servile of a people that had been beaten down to the ground. Immediately, instead of stalking in the arrogance of the conqueror, they adopt, almost despite themselves, the rôle of benefactors. It is just one more proof of the nobility of the French character as compared with that of the German.

CONDITIONS IN SAABRUECKEN

Saarbrücken, Dec. 3.—The French occupied this city today. Though the 125,000 inhabitants do not look thin and do not seem to have suffered real hunger, most of them, especially the children, have an unhealthy, waxy complexion, characteristic of malnutrition. In the hotels, however, and in the leading restaurants the menu is fairly abundant for those who can afford it.

There is veal in large quantities at 8 marks per portion, with potatoes; ham, cold or cooked, 2 marks; beef, very rarely, 10 marks; excellent potato or other vegetable soup, 1 mark; hare and vegetables, 8 marks; best Strasbourg pâté de foie gras, with toast, 8 marks, and even pancakes or sweet omelet at 10 marks. All portions are considerably larger than those served in Paris, and on the whole prices seem to contrast pretty favorably with those of the French capital. It is possible to drink poor beer at half a mark a litre, and any amount of German wine at normal rates.

It seems—something which I observed in Alsace-Lorraine and Belgium—that the well-to-do classes were more favored, as compared with their poorer brethren, than in France or England. Restrictions which pressed very heavily on the poor have hardly touched the rich, and this, perhaps, is not one of the least

causes of the widespread social discontent which bids fair to disrupt Germany today.

In the stores of Saarbrücken there are plenty of goods at fairly moderate prices. Despite what one has heard to the contrary, a decent suit of clothes can be bought for 200 marks. Leather boots are expensive—50 to 100 marks a pair, according to style—but leather vanity bags, gloves, &c., seem little dearer than in Paris. And always it must be remembered that the inflation of paper currency reduces the mark to about half its value in real money, so that to obtain a fair comparison with allied prices one should make a reduction of nearly 50 per cent.

FRENCH OCCUPY MAINZ

The French forces occupied Mainz (Mayence) on Dec. 14, and reached the extreme limit of the bridgehead on the 15th. In its forward movement the Tenth Army found more of a spirit of curiosity among the population than of hostility. The regular authorities were recognized by the French, and no attention was paid to the Workmen's Committees. Food supplies seemed ample and the inhabitants appeared to be in good health. Activity was suspended in most of the industrial centres, otherwise life in this region continued normal.

The entry of Generals Fayolle and Mangin into Mainz at 2 o'clock Dec. 14 created a profound impression on that part of the population that did not remain indoors. It was one of the most memorable ceremonies of the occupation.

The strong guard of French troops requested by the authorities of the city had put an end to the pillaging of the military stores on Dec. 9. Their conduct since that time had provoked the most favorable comment on the part of citizens and officials, and that impression was strengthened when the men of the Tenth Army marched through Mainz with the same dignity that has characterized the forward movement of the French everywhere into German territory.

The Frenchmen swung through the old Hessian town, which was French for

a score of years after occupation by the Revolutionary armies, with the business-like gait so familiar in the last four and a half years, apparently unconscious that they were victors marching into the conquered town of an adversary. The attitude of officers and men greatly facilitated the task of occupation. The people maintained greater reserve than the inhabitants of the other towns occupied by the French. Many of the houses and buildings were tightly closed, and a large proportion of the people in the streets were women and children.

After a review of the troops of the Tenth Army, General Fayolle and General Mangin were presented to the city and provisional authorities in the old Hessian grand ducal palace. The Burgomaster, the President of the Provincial Government, and the President of the Chamber of Commerce addressed General Fayolle, expressing the hope that the military authorities would co-operate with them in maintaining order and keeping the economic life of the region going.

GENERAL FAYOLLE'S ADDRESS

General Fayolle, in reply, reminded them that the war imposed by Germany was one of the most cruel and unjust in history. He drew a picture of the devastation in France and Belgium, and the distress of families without shelter, their goods, products, and manufacturing machinery having been carried off into Germany and their soil left a desert.

The General recalled how, after repeated defeats since July 15, the Germans had been obliged to ask for an armistice. He assured the authorities that, however natural reprisals might be considered, they had nothing to fear from the troops of occupation, either for their persons or possessions, so long as they realized the situation and accepted the French occupation in a proper spirit.

The German authorities listened with respectful attention to a translation of General Fayolle's address and a short talk by General Mangin, who assured them of the co-operation of the army in maintaining the regular course of life in the occupied region. The German offi-

cials appeared disposed to continue the conversation, but they were given to understand that the ceremony was over and they filed out after ceremonious salutes.

The French 313th Corps, under General Lecomte, occupied Wiesbaden on Dec. 16 and was reviewed from the steps of the City Hall, opposite the statue of former Kaiser Wilhelm.

The British Advance to Cologne

By PHILIP GIBBS

MALMEDY, Germany, Dec. 3.—British troops crossed the Belgian frontier and entered Germany to-day. Here and there some small children, watching from cottage windows or in their mothers' arms, waved their hands with the friendliness of childhood for all men on horses, and they were not rebuked. German school-boys in peaked caps, with their hands thrust in their pockets, stared without friendliness or unfriendliness. Some girls on a hillside above the winding road laughed and waved their handkerchiefs. There was no sense as yet of passing through a hostile country where we were not wanted.

Round the hairpin turn we came down into Malmedy, lying in a narrow valley with some of its streets and houses climbing up the hillsides. It was a typical little German town, with here and there houses of the chalet style and houses of the modern country type in Germany, with wooden balconies and low-pitched roofs, and beyond very neat and clean-looking factories on the outskirts of the town. The shops were bright, and I saw a display of wooden soldiers and flaxen-haired dolls and toy engines as though for the German Christmas which is coming, and in one little garden there was a figure of the little old gnomelike Rumpelstilzkin in my old copy of Grimm's Fairy Tales.

It was surprising to hear that most of the people about one were speaking French. Some of us remembered then that Malmedy was not in Germany until after 1815, and that for a long time it was an independent little town belonging to a Belgian Abbey of great wealth and power before it was destroyed in the French Revolution. The people here

were not typically German, and many of them at least had the neutral spirit of people who live close to the frontier and speak two languages, or three, as at Malmedy, where every one is equally familiar with German, French, and Walloon.

At Malmedy there was no sign whatever of hostility except the sullen look on the faces of some men who stared through the windows of a clubhouse and the gravity of other men who turned their heads away when the cavalry passed, as though unaware of them. In many windows was a notice in German, which I read. It was an appeal by Burgomaster Kalpers, reading:

"Citizens are earnestly requested to maintain great calm and order on the entry of the Entente troops into our city and to receive them with courtesy and dignity."

That wish was being carried out, and it was with politeness as well as dignity that the strangers were greeted in this first German town across the frontier.

COLOGNE ASKS BRITISH AID

Outside Cologne, Dec. 7.—For some days now British troops have been in Germany and this morning were just outside Cologne. Again and again during the last few days I have heard German people say, "Thank God the English have come," and I believe they say that with sincerity. The German middle class are more afraid, it seems, of Bolshevism than of the British soldiers, and during the time of political crisis and social revolution people with property and those who desire law and order rather than anarchy of the mob were anxious for the presence of the British as being the

lesser of two evils, though tragedy enough.

Thus the Burgomaster of Cologne yesterday a special message, asking that the troops should enter earlier than previously arranged, and some machine gunners were sent forward. This is to restrain the low element of the civil population from pillaging and rioting, as they have been doing in Cologne.

At Duren, now occupied by British, the first act of the mob, partly made up of revolutionary soldiers and partly of disorderly youths, was to break into the barracks and loot them. The German officers were disarmed and degraded, but not otherwise hurt, and there was a good deal of window-smashing and pillage until the Burgomaster enrolled a town guard, mostly made up of ex-soldiers in plain clothes, with arm bands and with loaded rifles.

FRIENDLY VILLAGERS

Yesterday I passed columns of English and Scottish troops on the march through the forest of Duren and on the high winding roads of the plateau. Duren is a great forest, dark and mysterious in its depths, between long glades of tall, straight columned firs, with their sweep of green foliage above masses of scarlet bracken. * * *

Everywhere I found that the villagers had received the British in a friendly way and that yellow-haired children stood in groups round them as they picketed their horses and unloaded their transports. War is war, but children are children, and it is difficult to nourish hatred in one's heart when small boys and girls come to shake one's hand or kiss it, and when little maids with pig-tails curtsy as one passes and in a wayside inn the serving maid wishes one a good appetite before one eats and stands around with anxious eyes to observe the effect of the food she has cooked.

Every man of high or low estate doffs his hat when he meets a British officer, and if one stops to make inquiry of the German civilians, many of whom were German officers until a week ago, they answer with the utmost politeness.

Defeat and the revolution with which they are threatened and fear of worse

things that may happen have made the German people painfully anxious to abide by the rules of occupation and get on the right side of those who now have powers of life and death over them. This fear and the tremendous relief that bloodshed has finished, and perhaps also hope of a new era of liberty released from Prussian militarism, has changed amazingly the attitude of these people of the Rhineland toward the English. There is no more "Gott strafe England."

WATCH ON THE RHINE

Cologne, Dec. 7.—British cavalry patrols yesterday entered Cologne, and, riding to the swing bridge which has replaced the old bridge of boats, were the first British soldiers to reach the Rhine. This morning one sentry lad of the 18th Hussars was posted on the town side of the bridge and another on the other side opposite the village of Deutz, famous as far back as Roman times as the bridgehead of Cologne. Facing him on that side was a German sentry in uniform bearing arms, the last of the rearguard of the German Army.

I walked on the bridge this morning, and, leaning over it, looked down on the waters of the Rhine, and even then could hardly believe we were there and had reached that goal which used to be spoken of as a grim jest in the dugouts near Ypres and on the Somme, when it seemed easier to get to Heaven than to this German river—and this was so to many thousands of Britishers three months ago. I went into Bapaume on the morning of its capture, and even then the idea that we should be on the Rhine today would have seemed a fantastic vision. But there this morning were the Hussars with their sentries keeping guard, and down below the bridges on the quayside some of the British men were cleaning their machine guns in the centre of a German crowd, and in the streets were some of their armored cars, at which the people of Cologne stared from tramcars and sidewalks.

The young Hussar pacing the bridge looked lonely among all those German civilians about him, looking at his kit and giving him sidelong glances as they

passed. One of my friends spoke to him and asked him how he was getting on.

"The people are not unfriendly," he said. "They come up and speak to me in English now and then."

"What do they say?" he was asked, and for a moment he hesitated. Then he grinned and said:

"One German this morning came up to me and said, in well-spoken English, 'So you have wound up as the Watch on the Rhine?'"

WHERE HUNGER LURKS

My first impressions of German conditions of life in the villages and rural towns, like Malmedy and Montjoie and Dupen, were of surprise at the good meals one can get in the hotels and restaurants. There seemed to be an abundance of meat and other supplies in towns like Aix-la-Chapelle and an absence of the hunger look in the faces of the middle class crowds in Cologne. But if one examines deeper, one finds that this is all superficial and due partly to the gross inequality of conditions between the rich and the poor, and partly, too, to proud camouflage of the misery which is beneath the surface of this show in the handsome streets and rich restaurants. There is hideous stinting and scraping of the barest necessities of life, with the hunger wolf at the doors of the small houses and in some quarters where workingwomen live in half starvation, which drains them of vitality.

This camouflage of life's luxuries has been cleverly done by the Germans, but like camouflage in war it is all sham. There is sham coffee and sham tea. Even the rich-looking pastry in the shop windows is made without fat, and with a little flour mixed with substitutes, so that it has no nourishment. In the great hotels the skill of the chefs makes poor food tasty and ekes it out. The rich middle classes can buy good food at high prices, evading the food regulations, so long as they have the money to pay, but the workingwomen and poorer middle class or professional people have to abide by their ration cards, and, as a Frenchwoman told me of her own people in the war zone, they get too much for death but not enough for life.

BRITISH CROSS THE RHINE

Cologne, Dec. 14.—This morning at 10 o'clock our cavalry passed through the streets of Cologne, crossed the Hohenzollern Bridge, and went beyond the Rhine to take possession of the bridge-heads.

For some days not many British soldiers had been seen in the City of Cologne, the troops being camped in the outskirts, and it was only yesterday afternoon that the British Governor made his entry and established his headquarters in one of the hotels which had been taken over for the purpose. Crowds of German people gathered to see the man who will control their way of life during the British occupation, and were kept back in a hollow square by their own police when the Governor's motor car drove in with an escort of lancers, while a band of Scottish pipers played a greeting.

This morning the passing of the cavalry over the Rhine was an impressive sight for all the people of Cologne, and for the British was another historical episode on the long journey of this war, which has led at last to this river flowing now behind the British lines. To the German people the Rhine is the very river of their life, and down its tide come drifting all the ghost memories of their race, and its water is sacred to them as the fount from which their national legends, their old folk songs, and the sentiment that lies deep in their hearts have come forth in abundance.

In military history the Rhine has been their last line of defense, the moat around the keep of German strength; so today when British troops rode across the bridge and passed beyond the Rhine to further outposts it was the supreme sign of victory for them and of German defeat.

They are a proud people, and they did not show by any word of rage or cry of bitterness the emotion they must have felt when the British went over the bridge. There were not large crowds about. Many of the people of Cologne did not come out to see the actual crossing, though they were in the streets through which the cavalry rode, but there

were lines of people on each side of the way and groups of them at each end of the Hohenzollern Bridge.

PLUMER AND HIS MEN

The Hohenzollern Bridge is a massive structure of the German character, with castellated towers at each end like those outside a mediaeval fortress. At the city end on pedestals below the towers are enormous equestrian figures of William I. of Prussia and his son of the House of Hohenzollern which has now fallen with a crash that has shaken off the crowns of the other German Kings.

Below one of these statues on the southern side of the bridge, General Sir Herbert Plumer, commanding the Second Army of the British armies in the field army of Flanders, which has fought so many battles since the first battle of Ypres, stood in the midst of the Generals and staff officers of his corps and divisions and brigades and received the salute of the cavalry as they rode behind the Rhine.

Hardly once during two hours did this gallant old General give his arm any rest as he stood there rigid, with his hand to his cap. It was an ordeal for any man, but Plumer, who has known the sacrifice of his men through bloody years, saluted each of them today, Colonel or Corporal, or trooper, horse gunner, bugler, or signaler, with all the honor he could give them on this last ride to their journey's end. It was a picture which belongs to history.

LANCERS AND HUSSARS

A guard of honor of Lancers, with red and white pennons at their lance tips, was on one side of the bridge below the statue of William I., sitting there motionless, as though also made of bronze, like that great horseman, except when their beautiful animals pawed the ground and tossed their heads. A band was close to the army commander's place, and when he came it played the old tune of "Rule, Britannia," and then when the cavalry passed led the song of "The Long, Long Trail."

There were Lancers in the first escort squadron, and the officers rode with drawn swords, and as they came near to

the saluting base turned in their saddles and shouted in the high, long-drawn voice of the cavalry command, "Carry swords," and then to the escort squadron, "Eyes right," and every trooper turned his head sideways, so that there was a gleam of steel helmets down the lines with that fine stern look of men which gives a thrill to one's spine.

Lancers and Dragoon Guards and Hussars, with their horse artillery, in which each gun was polished as a pretty toy for pageantry and not for death, they passed in a steady stream which took two hours to flow by across that bridge.

Down below on the quayside was an other procession which I happened to see when I looked over the bridge. It was headed by two German officers in full uniform, with a white flag on the front of their motor car, and behind them came a long line of other cars with the German eagle painted on the panels. They had come into Cologne under a flag of truce to deliver up the cars according to the terms of the armistice.

RIGID MARTIAL LAW

Cologne is orderly and submissive to the regulations under British authority. The people go about their way with as little notice as possible of the foreign troops in their midst, though in the cafés and restaurants one sees them stealing glances at the British officers and men who come in to listen to the music of the orchestras, which play on gayly, as though no tragic thing had come to Germany.

Martial law was declared in Cologne on Dec. 12. Contained in the list of rules are two which the residents appear to dislike particularly. One provides that all males must greet British officers and the playing of the British national anthem, civilians by removing their hats and men in uniform by the usual military salute. The other order forbids residents to leave their homes between the hours of 7 at night and 6 o'clock in the morning, with some exceptions, such as clergymen and physicians.

On the inside of the door leading into every house must be posted a list of the occupants, containing information re-

garding their ages, occupations, and other matters. No person may change residence without permission, and every inhabitant 12 years of age or over must have an identification card. All day crowds are gathered outside the shops of photographers waiting to get the pictures which must be placed on the cards. Residents having these cards may circulate freely about the city, but may not leave it without permission. It is forbidden to travel on horseback or on a bicycle, except for certain occupational reasons.

No newspapers or pamphlets may be printed or circulated without permission. Today [Dec. 12] the Cologne Gazette and other papers were not published, although they expect to resume tomorrow.

The transportation and sale of liquor, except beer and wines, are forbidden. No street assemblies will be permitted, and other assemblies must be authorized. Amusement places cannot run without authorization.

Residents must surrender all weapons and must aid the military in the pursuit of lawbreakers. There can be no telephone communication save in extreme cases, and then only with permission. The employment of wireless and pigeons is forbidden. Only limited personal or business correspondence with unoccupied Germany and foreign countries and correspondence with German prisoners are permitted. Civilians are forbidden to have cameras. The military will have the right to search men suspected of having concealed weapons or of having broken ordinances.

Field Marshal Haig has issued an order to the entire occupied territory in which he declares that the inhabitants will be protected as long as they are obedient and peaceable. The death penalty or such other punishment as may be decreed is provided if violence is done to soldiers, or the supplies or works necessary to the military operations are damaged.

Recovery of Brussels, Strasbourg, and Aix

Special correspondents of The New York Times and CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE described in moving terms the formal occupation of historic Belgian and French cities on the way to the Rhine. Walter Duranty cabled from Brussels on Nov. 22:

"Just one hour ago King Albert halted his white horse at the Flanders Gate of his capital city of Brussels, and Burgomaster Max stepped from the throng of Municipal Councilors to greet him. By the King's side was the Queen, a slender figure in a fawn-colored riding habit, with a close-fitting fur toque. During the Burgomaster's short speech of welcome and the King's reply the Queen raised her hand from time to time, to shelter her eyes from the sun, which was dazzling in a cloudless sky, where scores of airplanes wheeled like gleaming birds.

"It was a striking picture that the soldier King made, sitting motionless on his horse, in the uniform of a General, with a khaki helmet. He wore two rows of ribbons, including that of the French

Legion of Honor, Military Medal, and War Cross. Not a word could be heard on account of the thunderous roar of the multitude, which never ceased for a moment.

"The enthusiasm of the people was delirious, indescribable. Fully a million people must have lined the route through which the procession passed. They were everywhere—on the housetops or perched on ledges from the first story to the fourth, attached by ropes to windows. Each lamppost bore two or three, and on a telegraph pole at the Flanders Gate there was a boy hanging insecurely by his sash who somehow managed to wave and cheer without breaking his neck.

"Although his words were lost, the King's face showed deep emotion as he replied to the Burgomaster, and twice he gestured strongly with his right hand. Two paces behind him was Prince Albert of England in the uniform of the Royal Air Force, with the Belgian Princes and the Princess just beyond. In the grand stand to the rear of the Burgomaster

stood a number of American and British officers, including General Farnsworth, commander in Flanders, whom I saw chatting with the Burgomaster a few minutes before the arrival of the royal party.

"When the short ceremony was ended the King and Queen wheeled their horses to greet a party of allied Generals on horseback. Then, as the procession moved forward, it seemed that the noise increased, if that were possible, and so King Albert entered Brussels, riding along a narrow street where flags made an avenue of color before him and flowers fell about him in a bright rain. The Belgian Princes and their sister rode abreast, Leopold in the centre, a slim boy in the plain khaki of the Belgian poilu. On his right was Charles, a stocky youngster, in the uniform of an English naval cadet. Princess Marie José was on the right, a smiling child in a gray dress, with her golden hair in fuzzy plaits beside each ear. As she passed a youth on a telegraph pole she laughed and waved to him. The crowd yelled delightedly, and the youth responded with such energy that nothing but a miracle averted a fall."

STRASBOURG FRENCH AGAIN

The entry of the French into Strasbourg was described by Walter Duranty on Nov. 25:

"If there was any doubt as to the genuineness of the rejoicing in Alsace over the prospect of being French again it would have been dispelled by the enthusiasm of the reception given Marshal Pétain, attended by Generals Fayolle and Gouraud, as he drove through Strasbourg today followed by the flower of the French Army.

"I watched the procession pass through the square of the eleventh century cathedral that had witnessed the triumphal entry of Louis XIV. After the Generals in automobiles came picked battalions of the Colonial Army, led by zouaves with red shoulder straps, flanked on either side by a long file of girls in bright-colored Alsatian costumes. Then came a little band of veterans of 1870.

"I talked with one afterward, a man

of 76, whose limp is a memory of a bullet wound received at Mars-la-Tour. He was almost overcome with emotion in his gratitude to heaven that he had lived to see the day when French soldiers again marched through the City of Strasbourg. For that was characteristic of the ceremony. It was the pageant and triumph of the French Army, an astounding demonstration of the military power that had borne the brunt of the war throughout, had upheld the Allies in defeat, and had had the lion's share in the final campaign to victory. In Brussels it was the fête of King Albert; in Strasbourg it was the poilus' triumph."

George H. Perris gave this further word picture on Nov. 26:

"Three halts were made in the procession through the city, first in the Kleberplatz, where the troops presented arms before the statue of Marshal Kleber, an Alsatian who was one of Napoleon's most spirited lieutenants; second, in Town Hall Square, where the flags were ceremoniously saluted, and last in the Kaiserplatz, before the local palace of the lamented Emperor. At each of these points the masses of inhabitants and country folk had gathered during the forenoon, and the surrounding buildings, substantial structures in red sandstone, fine shops and charming old houses, with steep dormer-windowed roofs, were full of happy faces laughing through waving fields of tricolor flags.

"In Kleber Square many of the musical and sporting societies by which Alsatian patriotism has been secretly sustained during the German domination were in evidence by their bands and banners, some of these drawn from their hiding places for the first time in forty-eight years. Everywhere the holiday dress of Alsatian girls splashed the scene with jolly waves of color.

"I have often testified to the genius of our French friends for the organization of great public spectacles. Today's was in every way worthy of the occasion. More can hardly be said. Not the least was the pertinent note of mordant wit which flavored its pathos and magnificence. A less bold artist in open-air staging would not have ventured to choose for his final scene the Kaiserplatz

and the steps of the recently imperial palace. It recalls the famous witticism about the Holy Roman Empire—that it was neither holy nor Roman. So the vulgar barrack is neither imperial nor palatial in any sense but that of the modern boche railway station.

"Four pseudo-mediaeval heralds of giant size hold the tricolor now floating from the roof. The German eagle still screams from the stone plinth above the outer staircase. The Hohenzollern arms have not been removed, and it was under these symbols of dead imposture that the heroic poilus of republican France and their chiefs today received their reward in the plaudits of one of the lands they have delivered.

"Pétain, with Castelnau, Fayolle, and Maistre, all three commanders of groups of armies; Humbert, Buat and other Generals and several hundred staff officers, were at the foot of the steps and on either side for the march past. Gouraud, the 'Lame Lion of Africa,' faced them on the other side of the roadway, an immobile figure of almost tragic gravity. Behind him a vast crowd swayed and cheered the passing groups of chasseurs, zouaves, tankmen, tirailleurs, pioneers, machine gunners, artillerymen, and dragoons."

IN AIX-LA-CHAPELLE

The Belgian Army's entry into Germany at Aix-la-Chapelle was depicted by Philip Gibbs as follows, under date of Dec. 3:

"I went this morning to Aix-la-Chapelle, (Aachen, as it is called in German,) and saw the entry of the Belgian Army of occupation. They came with bugles playing, and their officers rode with drawn swords, and the men marched through at a quick pace with their colors flying. One German boy failed to take off his hat to the colors, and a Belgian soldier plucked it off and said: 'Salute the Belgian flag.' On the walls were the posters which have turned the tables on the Germans, point by point, as they had ruled in the Belgian towns. All hats are to be taken off when Belgian officers pass.

"The people of Aachen knew the meaning of defeat when they saw the Belgians enter their city. They knew that those men were their masters who would order their way of life and have them at their mercy. I think they were afraid; but they lined up in the streets to watch the passing of the troops and were calm and put a good face upon this tragedy of theirs.

"I saw one girl close to me weeping. One by one the tears swelled into her eyes and fell as she stared, quite motionless. But I saw no other tears. Some of these German women found it in their hearts to smile, and others had proud faces which did not show any emotion of hostility or sorrow.

"The Belgian bugles blew through the streets of Aachen, and afterward the people went about their business as though nothing new had befallen them. I went to the old cathedral and found many people praying there under the arches and between the pillars which were built one thousand and one hundred years ago by Charlemagne, whose body lay there, and whose throne, looking down upon the high altar, is still there, as when the Emperor of the Franks sat there and plucked his flaxen beard and saw the Spirit of God somehow above all the welter of barbaric peoples who had been subdued to his sword. The German people were praying, I think, for peace today, and their heads were bowed.

"The rules promulgated Dec. 6 provide that nobody may enter or leave the town without passports. They prohibit all meetings or assemblies and close all theatres and moving-picture shows. Cafés and restaurants are permitted to remain open between 11 A. M. and 2 P. M. and between 5 P. M. and 8 P. M., Belgian time. The rules require also that all arms and military material must be surrendered. No German soldier is permitted to appear in uniform without permission of the Armistice Commission. The men generally are polite to the invaders, but it remains to the women to send bitter glances of hatred in the direction of the troops of occupation."

Surrender of the German Fleet

Described by an Eyewitness

A special correspondent on board the United States warship Florida, accompanying the British Grand Fleet in the Firth of Forth, Nov. 21, 1918, wrote for The New York Times and for CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE this vivid description of the historic spectacle presented during the surrender of the German High Seas Fleet:

IN the bright sunlight this afternoon nine German battleships, five battle cruisers, and seven light cruisers steamed into the Firth of Forth and gave themselves up for internment. They were led by a tiny British cruiser, and as they passed between the long lines of British and American battleships, the very perfection of their steaming and accuracy of their handling seemed to accentuate their humiliation.

How completely the menace which has hung like a cloud over the Allies was dissipated today is shown by the roll of vessels given up. Chief of the battleship squadron, which was commanded by Rear Admiral von Reuter, was the new Bayern, of 28,000 tons and carrying eight 15-inch guns. Then came the Grosser Kurfürst, the Markgraf, and the Kronprinz, each of 25,390 tons, and with ten 12-inch guns, and lastly the Friedrich der Grosse, König Albert, Prinzregent Luitpold, Kaiser, and Kaiserin, each of 24,310 tons and ten 12-inch guns.

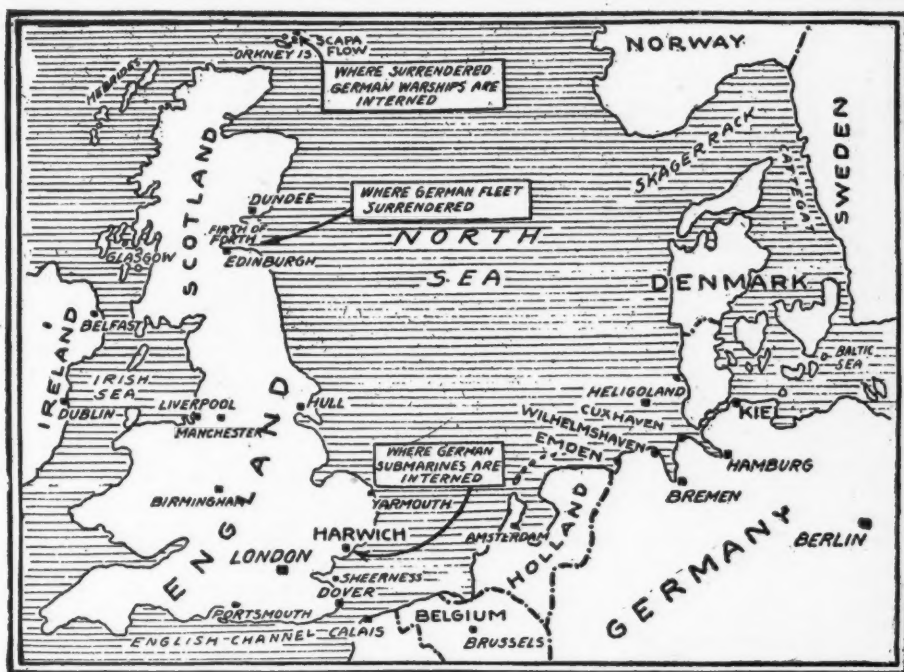
Commodore Taget commanded the five battle cruisers, the Derfflinger and Hindenburg, each of 26,180 tons, with eight 12-inch guns; the Seidlitz, 24,610 tons, with ten 11-inch guns; the Moltke, of 22,640 tons and same armament, and the Von der Tann, of 19,100 tons and eight 11-inch guns. The light cruisers brought in today under Commodore Harder included the Karlsruhe, Nürnberg, Koeln, Frankfurt, Brummer, Bremse and Emden. In addition there were fifty destroyers. All these are now at anchor under the guns of the Grand Fleet in British waters.

The program for the surrender was absolutely simple. The Germans had expressed a willingness to give themselves up, and there was nothing for them to

do but to come on their last cruise across the North Sea.

Last Monday [Nov. 18] the Germans, in accordance with orders from Admiral Beatty, put out to sea, with magazines empty, their guns secured amidships, and only navigating and engineering crews aboard. The British and American fleets were in parade order to receive a visit from King George. On Wednesday the King, accompanied by the Prince of Wales, in the destroyer Oak, steamed along miles of water between the great fighting ships. He was received formally on the American flagship New York in the afternoon by Admirals Sims and Rodman and Captain Beach, and he met the commanding officers of the other dreadnoughts—Florida, Arkansas, Wyoming, and Texas. But there were two noteworthy incidents connected with that visit. As the King stepped upon the deck of the New York, for the first time since the Revolution the British royal standard was broken out at the mainmast of an American warship in honor of the King of England, and before he left he made an interesting suggestion to Admiral Rodman. He said he would like to see certain British ships cross the Atlantic each year to take part in American manoeuvres, and American vessels in British waters at work with the British fleet. Thus, he thought, an understanding between the two great naval forces might be perpetuated.

Meanwhile, as the King spoke of his plans for peace, half a mile away was a reminder that the war was not yet over. As he shook hands with the American officers, out of the mists above the Forth Bridge came a long line of low, gray war vessels. They paid no atten-



WHERE THE GERMAN WAR SHIPS AND SUBMARINES ARE INTERNED

tion to the battleships, with their cheering crews. They paused not to salute the flag. Quietly they kept on their way. As they swung a little to northward toward the sea, another division of them slid silently up, and before these grew dim in the dusk yet another half dozen hove into sight. They were destroyers, the eyes and ears of the British fleet, and they were already putting out to meet the Germans. Since a little before noon they had begun to get under way, and from then until well after dark division after division of them kept slipping by. As they went, every one of them was as ready for action as though the armistice had not been signed and U-boats lurked beneath the surface of the sea.

BEATTY TOOK NO CHANCES

Admiral Beatty was taking no chances. He knew it would have been suicide for the Germans to attempt resistance at the last moment, but are there no moments when brave men may prefer death to dishonor? So, as the British and American fleets prepared to receive the surrender, they were also prepared for action.

Their decks were stripped, their battle flags were hoisted, ammunition for the big guns was in the turrets, and every officer and man was ready.

The plan was that the Germans should reach the rendezvous, sixty miles out, at 8 o'clock in the morning. All but their destroyers were to form in a long column headed by the British light cruiser Cardiff. First came the battle cruisers, then the battleships, three cables apart, then after a gap of three miles the light cruisers at the same interval, and last, three miles astern, the destroyers in groups of five. The Cardiff was to regulate their movements, and get, if possible, twelve knots out of them. All their big guns were to be trained inboard. Meanwhile on either side of their course, the Grand Fleet was to stand out and meet them in two long columns. Light cruisers were to lead the van, and behind them were the battleships, and behind these again other battle cruisers and light cruisers. Two great columns, each at least twenty miles long, were thus to be formed, and between them, under constant surveillance all the way, the German ships were to sail.

There was to be no communication between them and the Allies. They were to be left completely alone, and had only to obey signals and take up the anchorage assigned to them.

Long before dawn this morning the Grand Fleet got under way to go down to the appointed place. Thirty-three battleships, nine battle cruisers, five cruisers, and thirty-one light cruisers were to take part in the great triumph, and it takes a long time to move a mighty fleet like that in single file. It was a wonderful sight to watch them slip away in the small hours of the morning. There was a full moon, but the sky was overcast. For over six hours the British and American ships were picking their way down the Firth and manoeuvring to assume the two-column formation. From time to time through the air came signals from the Germans, announcing exactly where they were and what progress they were making.

At 8:18 o'clock the German commander reported he could not make the twelve knots required, but only ten. Everything was going well, but it was not until 9:15 that the Germans were first made out from the Grand Fleet. They were holding strictly to their course and steaming steadily ahead in excellent order, but from the northern column, at any rate looking into the sun and across the mists, they seemed very ghosts of a fighting force. They were dim and shadowy and were barely discernible against the gray sea. Above them floated a British observation balloon and a dirigible, but they made no signals and paid no attention to any one.

MET THEIR OLD RIVALS

After they had passed the cruiser they met the famous fifth British battle squadron which once before had come across them and left its mark upon them. There were the Barham, Valiant, Warspite, and the Malaya, ships which rushed at the battle of Jutland to the rescue of the battle cruisers. Then they were sheathed in smoke and fire; today they stood out in the sunlight glistening as if with silver, and gay with signaling flags—sturdy and solid looking craft they were. Then next behind them came

five tall ships from across the Atlantic, with Stars and Stripes floating proudly from each of their masts and flaunting as well from the latticework of their mainmasts. If the Germans used their glasses they must have seen their decks almost bare of figures, but their fighting tops crowded with them at their stations and their big guns ready to be swung round at a second's notice.

To the trained sailor's eye they represented warships ready for instantaneous battle.

"It is the proudest moment in my life," said an American officer as he looked through the mist at the German fleet slinking into inglorious safety, and again at the line of American ships keeping perfect distance and direction as they followed the flagship New York.

But even when these two powerful squadrons had gone by, the Germans had still to pass the nine battleships of the second battle squadron, Admiral Beatty's flagship, the Queen Elizabeth, and four ships of the first battle cruiser squadron and the Lion, as well as the fourth light cruiser squadron. Moreover, what the Germans saw on their starboard bow clearly enough in the sun, they knew was repeated on their other quarter, even though it was shadowed by the mists. They were steaming between two mighty fleets, which could blow them out of the water in five minutes. And it was of their own volition. This is what the ceremony of today seemed especially designed to bring out—that the surrender of the German fleet was a voluntary act on their part, and that there was no reason why they should have done it if they had not been afraid to fight. After a time the British columns turned and accompanied their prisoners back, each separate squadron wheeling out of line and back again so as to reverse the order of the whole array without altering that of each unit. But through it all the Germans kept plodding on. No one apparently gave them orders; no one coerced them; they were self-confessed in defeat and fleeing to safety while there was yet time.

The ceremony was almost terribly impersonal, so ostentatiously did the Grand Fleet keep its hands off its prisoners. It

had been at grips with the Germans before, and now it was content to let them pass and leave them alone.

As the Germans drew nearer their anchorage the humiliating nature of their plight must have come home still more sharply to them. As it chanced, it was necessary for the three lines of vessels to come closer together. The north and south columns of the Grand Fleet sheered in toward the German, and it seemed as though it was merely one division of a mighty fighting force.

STILL FLEW BATTLE FLAGS

The German ships were still flying their battle flags. Their guns ran out stiffly from their turrets, and their low silhouettes showed how skillfully they had been designed as war machines.

They were keeping a beautiful formation as regards distance, and there was nothing to suggest what they were, yet every mile was bringing them nearer hopeless and prolonged captivity, and

all their professional skill served only to aid their enemies in putting them easily into confinement. So as they reached their anchorage in the Firth, some miles below the Forth Bridge, in obedience to orders from the British, they split up into several lines and came to a halt. There they lay, motionless and harmless, and the British and American victors swept by, leaving them to the care of guardships. This afternoon Sir David Beatty sent to Admiral von Reuter this order:

"The German flag is to be hauled down at 5:57 today, (that is, sundown.) It is not to be hoisted again without permission."

Before many days the German ships will be moved under close guard in small detachments to that delightful Winter resort, Skapa Flow, in the bleak Orkneys, where they will be able to meditate for weeks and months on what British and American seamen dared to endure to cut their claws.

Executing the Armistice

Time Prolonged a Month

THE Germans complied with the armistice terms in the main in good faith, notwithstanding the revolutionary agitation, but certain conditions were impossible of fulfillment within the time limit. On Dec. 14 the following amendment to the armistice was signed in Marshal Foch's headquarters at Trèves:

First—The duration of the treaty of armistice concluded on Nov. 11 is prolonged one month, until the 17th day of January, 1919, at 5 o'clock in the morning. This extension of a month will be extended until the conclusion of preliminaries to peace, subject to the consent of the allied Governments.

Second—The execution of the conditions of the agreement of Nov. 11, such as are not completely fulfilled, will be followed and completed in the period of the extension of the armistice after regulations fixed by the International Armistice Committee according to instructions of the Allied High Command.

Third—The following conditions will be

added to the agreement of Nov. 11:

"The Allied High Command reserves the right to begin meanwhile, if it thinks it wise in order to assure new guarantees, to occupy the neutral zone on the right bank of the Rhine to the north of the bridgehead of Cologne, up to the Dutch frontier. This occupation will be announced by the Allied High Command by giving six days' notice."

In the interim between the signing on Nov. 11 and the prolongation on Dec. 14 the International Armistice Commission was in daily session at Spa in Belgium. The conferences were held at the border in the former seat of the Great German Headquarters, and were attended by representatives of the United States, Great Britain, France, and Germany. The utmost formality marked the proceedings.

The commission began its sittings Nov. 12, 1918. At that time the enemy was still occupying Spa. In the succeeding days long lines of hurrying and disor-

ganized German traffic and troops sped eastward through the watering place. There remained something more than a hundred German officers and men in the place under the orders of General von Winterfeldt, who represented the German Government.

Among the Entente representatives were Major Gen. Charles D. Rhodes and staff, for the United States; Major Gen. Sir Richard C. Haking and staff, for Great Britain, and General Nudant and staff for France. Major Gen. Rhodes occupied the villa Sous-Bois, which had been Field Marshal von Hindenburg's headquarters.

The conferences were held in the grand salon of the Hotel Britannique, which was part of Great Headquarters, and in which the Emperor took his final resolve to quit Germany.

The German sentry at the entrance of the hotel would click his heels sharply as the delegates entered or other officers passed. The sittings began at 10 o'clock daily. Prior to that hour the German delegates took their places at a huge table and received the allied officers standing. The latter walked silently to their chairs, where each delegate bowed profoundly to the man opposite before sitting down. There were no words of greeting, no pleasantries exchanged, and the business of the day was conducted throughout with the same grim precision.

So far as reported, there was no friction and no evidence that the Germans were evading the terms. There were frequent notes sent by cable to the United States by the German Foreign Secretary, Dr. W. S. Solf, protesting against certain features and asking modifications and revisions; all were referred to the allied High Command, but the cable petitions continued to come with such frequency that the United States Government at length requested the German authorities to address their communications to the allied council. No modifications of any sort were made.

The Germans complied to the letter in the surrender of the stipulated number of war vessels and gave up every submarine afloat, the total number reaching 122. These vessels were interned at Harwich, England. The delivery of airplanes

was made by piecemeal, as it was found impossible to assemble 2,000 airplanes at one place. The delivery of locomotives and cars was delayed on account of difficulties in transport, but toward the end of the thirty days of the armistice there was a readier compliance with this demand.

Mine sweepers left the Firth of Forth Nov. 22 for Kiel and Wilhelmshaven to clear the channels and disarm the remnants of the German Navy. On Dec. 3 a British fleet arrived at the port of Libau in Courland, on the Baltic, and the entire Baltic littoral came under control of the Allies. A Paris dispatch dated Dec. 4 stated that the Germans had begun financial restitution, and on that day had delivered to the Allies 300,000,000 francs in gold, which had come from the Russian Treasury. It was also reported that the French had recovered valuable etchings and Watteau paintings which had been taken from the museum at Valenciennes.

An incident with relation to the surrender of the German fleet was made public Nov. 28. Admiral von Reuter, Commander of the German fleet, which surrendered on Nov. 21, had protested against the order of Admiral Sir David Beatty of the British fleet, directing that the German flag be hauled down. He protested that internment in a British harbor was, under the terms of the armistice, equivalent to internment in a neutral port, where, in accordance with precedent, flags are allowed to remain hoisted. He added:

"I esteem it unjustifiable and contrary to international custom to order the striking of the flag on German ships. Moreover, in my opinion, the order to strike the flag was not in keeping with the idea of chivalry between two honorable opponents."

Admiral Beatty, calling attention to the fact that the armistice merely suspended hostilities, and that a state of war still existed between Germany and the Allies, replied:

"Under the circumstances, no enemy vessel can be permitted to fly its national ensign in British ports while under custody."

The German Armistice Delegates

French Soldiers' Attitude Toward Them

A correspondent of The London Post, who was at Guise on the night of Nov. 11, 1918, saw the German Delegates as they were departing from the Armistice Conference, on their way back to their own country. He describes the attitude of the French soldiers toward their foes as follows:

THE roads were a mass of mud, motor cars of all sorts were ranged by the side of the main street, and the German plenipotentiaries were temporarily halted because of a breakdown to a motor lorry in the road in front of them. There were seven cars in all, two of them belonging to French Headquarters and five being German. The plenipotentiaries must have halted for nearly half an hour, and certain members of the junior staff attached to them got down while the details of a fresh route to be followed were discussed by them with the French officers by whom they were being escorted.

The senior members remained in the cars, invisible in darkness. Those we saw were of the typical officer class, clean-shaven and almost aggressively self-contained. For the most part they were silent, but occasionally they talked in low tones. On the pavement by the houses there was a continual movement of French soldiers. No guard was round the cars, for any sort of guard was entirely unnecessary. There was not a single individual among the two or three hundred men present who even moved forward to catch a glimpse of the mission. There was no question as to any one doubting their identity, for the cars bore on their panels the crest of the Black Eagle.

The demeanor of the French soldier was typical of the high standard of courtesy set by Marshal Foch. Both army and nation realized that with Marshal Foch in command the terms of the armistice were in absolutely safe hands, as he had abundantly shown that he had taken to the full such measures as the situation required. He insisted, however, that every detail of the transaction should be conducted in absolute privacy, and there was not present at the historic

meeting a single representative of the French or allied press. In the same way the French soldier who has proved his capacity as an enemy of the German showed last night instinctively a chivalrous courtesy to his beaten adversary, and the army authorities knew that they could trust implicitly in the conduct of the men under their command.

The Captain in command at the advance post near Chimoy, on the route taken by the plenipotentiaries when they came to request the terms of an armistice, described their approach as follows:

I had been warned that it was possible an envoy might arrive and that fire had ceased in the sector. At about 3 o'clock in the afternoon a German Lieutenant appeared, magnificently turned out and magnificently mounted, with an escort of two. I met him about a hundred yards in front of our lines and he wished me to go back with him to meet the plenipotentiaries. I told him I could not leave my command, and at first there was some demur, the idea of those with him being that a French officer should accompany the plenipotentiaries from the other side of the line. I assured him there would be no firing in the sector, that the plenipotentiaries could cross the line in safety, and that I would receive them at my post of command. "This gentleman is an officer," he said to the men with him, "and as an officer I can accept and trust his word." Five o'clock was the time fixed for the arrival of the delegates, but at that hour no one arrived, the mission, as is known, actually making their appearance considerably later in the evening, when they at once proceeded on their way.

A member of the German Armistice Delegation communicated to the Vossische Zeitung the following account of the

meeting with Marshal Foch and the allied delegates:

When on Nov. 5 we left Spa in motor cars and reached the French lines we found enemy carriages already waiting to take us to the unknown scene of negotiations. This motor tour with the French officers lasted ten hours, and it appears likely was intentionally prolonged in order to drive us all over the devastated province and prepare us by what we saw for what was shortly to be put before us in the way of hatred and revenge in the extremely severe armistice conditions. Now and again a Frenchman pointed silently to heaps of ruins, or mentioned a name, "Voilà St. Quentin." In the evening, wherever it was, a train stood ready for us. The windows of the carriages were curtained, and when we awoke next morning the train stood in the midst of a wood.

We know now that the negotiations took place in the forest of Compiègne, but a week ago we knew nothing. Perhaps it was a measure of precaution, even for our sakes, that we were taken through no town. Perhaps acts of violence were feared on the part of the population, for the hatred for us among them is boundless. The wood was evidently barred by troops to all comers. There were no houses and no tents. On the railway line stood two trains, one occupied by Marshal Foch and his people, the other by ours. Here for three days we lived, worked, and deliberated. This seems to be the modern form of such negotiations. The castles and fortresses of olden times have gone, even for such purposes. The train with its sleeping, drawing-room, and dining cars was very comfortable, and we were provided with everything we wanted. The officer who had charge of the train had us supplied, and the conduct of the numerous guards who stood around was beyond reproach.

But all the hostility and the fullness of hate for our country that seems now to be cherished in France came to expression in the form of the negotiations, as well as in the terrible nature of the conditions. Those of use who were soldiers wore uniforms and the Iron Cross. The introduction to the half-dozen French

officers who conducted the negotiations with us "in plenum" and the greetings were of the coldest. Foch, who showed himself only twice—at the opening and at the end—gave us no word of the particular politeness that in earlier times distinguished the most chivalrous nation in the world, and his officers just as little. He received us with the words, "Qu'est ce que vous désirez, messieurs?" and invited us into his business car, furnished with tables and maps. As each was to speak his own language and everything was translated, the reading of the conditions alone occupied nearly two hours. It was moreover a discovery when Foch answered that there were to be no negotiations, and only dictated matter. Altogether, with all his coldness, he was by no means so tactless and brusque as was General d'Esperey at Belgrade.

Then we retired to our train, which stood on the other line. As we had been sent by the old Government, and had certainly not been authorized to sign everything without conditions, we proceeded, at the instance of Erzberger, to divide the various points under three heads, military, naval, and diplomatic, and discussed them separately with the members of the enemy commissions, which consisted only of officers. Military Germany thus, with two civilians, stood face to face with now completely militarized France. The enemy maintained, in the persons of all his representatives, the same objective; their coldness was mitigated by no single word that bordered upon the human, as had marked our reception by the Marshal. The English Admiral adopted the tone of the French, and only from Foch's Chief of the General Staff, who bore the Alsatian name of Weygand, did we perhaps receive any greater politeness.

During our two days' proceedings there was really no negotiation, and we could only try to obtain concessions on various conditions. For when the enemy demanded delivery of 160 U-boats we could only point out the technical impossibility, as we had not 160 to give. This demand had to be changed into the formula, "all U-boats." The chief point was that of food, and of this we were in

a certain measure able to obtain assurance. In the meantime, in this lonely wood, with its two railway trains, we were cut off from all intercourse with the outside world. Foch himself went off twice to Paris, and couriers were able in two hours to arrive with the papers. Thus it was possible for the enemy on Sunday, early, to hand us the Paris news-

papers with the abdication of the Kaiser. We read no laughter, no triumph, in their faces, but we saw in their hearts that our work was not interrupted. Immediately before the close of the second and last plenary sitting we placed before the enemy in the German language our protest against the treaty, but in the end we had to sign.

Sufferings of Ostend Under German Occupation

Ostend, the famous Belgian Summer resort, after enduring four years of German occupation, was evacuated late in October, 1918. A tragic episode of the day of the German withdrawal was the killing of three little children by booby traps. A correspondent, who visited the evacuated city on Oct. 24, gave the following account:

THE city is like a place awakening from a deep sleep. Hotels and shops and houses are barred and shuttered. Their tenants have lived in England, or Holland, or France since 1914. Grass is growing in the cobbled streets; the only traffic to pass is an occasional car or a tiny dog-drawn cart. Twenty-seven thousand people are living in the town. The Germans cut off the gas, electricity, and water the day they left.

The Sheriff and Burgomaster of the city, M. Auguste Liebaert, described the occupation as follows: "We had to execute the orders the Germans gave us. All that they demanded had to be done, and I acted so that I got into no disputes with them, and the town also was kept out of trouble. So far as administration is concerned, things went along smoothly. We paid no fines. Once when the Germans said that a pigeon had been shot down carrying a message from Ostend over the lines a fine of 1,250,000 francs was imposed, but at the end of two months we got it remitted."

There were many requisitions. First the wine was seized, then the wool and linen, then the copper and brass. Matresses were taken even from under men dying in hospital. Hotels were stripped of sheets, tablecloths, and other articles. Bicycles and motor cars had to be surrendered for one-tenth of their value.

With regard to the collection of brass and copper, I saw people fishing in a dock basin to recover a parcel of things dropped into the water many months ago to keep them from falling into enemy hands. The church bells and the Ostend carillon were all commandeered. There was no general robbery of *objets d'art*, but houses and hotels abandoned during the flight of the population four years ago have been thoroughly pillaged. Forced labor was general. Belgians were often set to work in places exposed to bombardments, and a number of men were injured at different times. Men who would not work were put in prison or sent to the front, and food was refused to their wives. In this harsh way obedience could be compelled. On one occasion the town was ordered to provide forty men for work connected with the construction of an aerodrome. The draft failed to appear at the stated time, and the civil authorities were notified that a fine of 300 marks would be levied for each hour which passed before the labor was provided. Eventually the men were obtained, and again a remission of the fine was secured.

When the Germans came into the town they seized the municipal funds, but three years later these were restored, apparently without explanation. Currency has been almost entirely in paper, and instead of using German money the

Ostend people had a note issue of their own. This reached \$8,000,000.

The distribution of food through the commission was in very limited quantities. Once a fortnight each member of a household received 150 grammes (5½ ounces) of flaked corn, 50 grammes of dried peas, 500 grammes of beans, 150 grammes of fat bacon, and 400 grammes of lard or some other fat. There was also a packet of matches for each family, and occasionally a ration of salt. Every six months a household received a piece of leather for soling boots, Bread, made from a mixed meal of barley, peas, beans, and other things, coarse and unpalatable, should have been shared out on a basis of 300 grammes a day, but the ration often could not be obtained. For food and clothing other than that provided by the Relief Commission extravagant prices were demanded. The following prices prevailed:

	Per Pound.		Per Pound.
Meat	\$1.90	Tobacco	\$3.00
Barley40	Rabbits, each..	5.00
Coffee	5.00	Soap, a bar....	2.60
Tea	9.00	Suit of clothes..	100.00
Butter	6.00	Boots	50.00
Lard	2.50	Hat	10.00
Eggs, each.....	.25		

Sub-Lieutenant von Beker, the Juge d'Instruction, was especially hated. A familiar practice with this officer was to act both as policeman and Magistrate. He made arrests and the next day imposed the fines. Other Germans who aroused the hatred of the people were Captain Hintze, "a foul brute." He heard that a woman had bought a piano so that her daughter could earn something by giving lessons. Hintze said he wanted the instrument, and when the woman protested he sentenced her to six months' imprisonment and moved the piano away. One of the Judges who condemned Captain Fryatt, a man named

Zeppfel, afterward became a military Judge at Ostend. The most recent commandant of the town, Captain Fischer of the German Navy, seems to have been of a better type.

Instances of savage punishment of individuals and of brutality could be described until columns were filled. What happened at Lille in the way of disgusting medical examinations of respectable women and girls was repeated at Ostend in a more limited form. Any girl denounced secretly to the German authorities through spite, or who was supposed to have spoken to a soldier, had to submit to the ordeal, and it often happened that perfectly innocent women were made victims of the system. On Aug. 18 of this year two British airmen, whose names are said to be Ingram and Wyn-court, came down near the town and were taken prisoner. As they were being marched through the streets a Belgian took off his hat to them. The Germans fined him 1,000 francs and sent him to prison for a fortnight. The man told me the story himself this morning. At the Hotel de la Couronne the proprietor was fined heavily when one German stole another German's baggage. A girl servant in the hotel said that her 70-year-old father lived near Dixmude all alone. He had become frail, but permission was refused either for the girl to join the father or for the father to come to Ostend. The man died without the girl seeing him. "L'Allemand est sans coeur," she exclaimed bitterly to me, and in that cry she summed up Ostend's opinion of the boche soldier, and more particularly the boche officer.

Twice during the occupation the Kaiser visited Ostend. On each occasion the people of the town were strictly forbidden to leave their houses, and nobody saw the supreme War Lord.



Bruges Under the Yoke

By HUMPHREY PAGE*

AT the first entrance of the enemy billeting was general throughout Bruges, but at this time our house happily escaped, the Germans having promised that none should be quartered, against the owner's will, in a house occupied by the owner himself.

For the first year we were left in comparative peace, though always liable to the visits of officers in search of pleasant quarters, who frequently demanded to be shown all over the house, even insisting upon a visit to the garden. In January, 1916, an officer called and asked, as usual, to be shown over the house. As my wife was ill, and I happened to be out, the servant, knowing the promise not to billet in any house occupied by the proprietor against his wish, explained that I was absent, that her mistress was indisposed, that the place was our own, and that we did not receive lodgers, and with some difficulty induced him to depart. Two days later I was surprised by a visit from the Platz Major Loos, accompanied by his subordinate, who informed me that I was condemned to receive into my house two officers, a bureau, and ten men, in punishment "for impoliteness to a German officer." My wife was seriously ill at the time, as Loos could plainly see when he ran across her while inspecting the different rooms. But he was absolutely implacable, telling me to prepare immediately for the reception of the men, although I protested that I had never even seen the officer to whom I was said to have been impolite.

On Jan. 27 we received a billeting order for one officer and one orderly, who were to arrive during the night, and had scarcely time to congratulate ourselves that it was no worse, when another order was brought for a second officer and a second man, also to arrive during the night. The two orderlies' luggage arrived in the early afternoon, and after arranging their own room and preparing those of their masters they went off with the house key, saying they would return at midnight. At 2 A. M. we were

aroused by their entrance with their officers, Ober-Lieut. Schäfer and Lieut. Schumann, both of the 10th Company, 2d M. I. R. (Marine Infantry). I got up to see what was going on, and told them that if there was anything further required I would attend to it in the morning, and upon Schäfer demanding a fire at once in his room I answered that we had received no directions to have fires lighted, and there was no one to make them at that time of night, and so left him.

Scarcely had we finished breakfast next morning when I walked Schumann and peremptorily desired that a "room already warmed" might instantly be placed at his disposal for their coffee. My wife explained that the breakfast room was the only one in which there was a fire burning, and was reserved for our own use, their rooms having already been selected by the Platz Major, who had also given us to understand that meals would be taken in the casino, and added, "If you persist in taking this room you practically oblige us to go into the kitchen." He answered rudely, "Ca ne me regarde pas," and immediately called the orderlies to prepare their breakfast. While they were taking their meal, I went to consult the town authorities. During my absence, Schumann ordered my wife, in presence of Schäfer and two other officers of the regiment, to show him over the whole house in order that he might select other rooms for himself. "Wait at least till my husband's return, as I am not very strong," she answered, but he only replied, "If you don't show them at once I will break them open with a hammer." Of course, she could only comply.

[Details are given of other insults offered the householder by officers who were billeted on him, two of whom insisted that their dogs be quartered in their rooms with them; both became

*Mr. Page is an elderly English gentleman who remained at Bruges during the four years of German occupation.

beastly drunk every night. Mr. Page continues:]

A flagrant violation of the German promise, as of all laws and conventions, was shown in the wholesale seizure of Belgian workmen, who were compelled either to serve on military works or else transported into Germany. On a protest being made, the excuse was that it was for the general good of Belgium, since nothing was more dangerous to the peace of the community than having a number of idle unoccupied men, who would naturally make their living by crime. The excuse that only the unemployed were taken was an absolute lie. Even skilled artisans, carvers, cabinetmakers and the like, men earning high wages, were sent to do rough work in the fields and trenches.

The Germans began by ordering men to appear on one or the other pretext, and then seizing them in full daylight; but as this led to great disturbance and many accidents, ended by taking them in the early hours of the morning, in many instances the bayonet being playfully employed to help them out of bed. Our cook told us of a very brutal case which had happened near our own house. A poor man whose wife had just died, leaving him with five or six young children, was dragged out of bed and told to go; when he protested and asked what was to become of his children, the only answer he received was: "Let the neighbors look after them."

In the Winter of 1916-17 the Germans, not content with quartering officers and men on the inhabitants, began to take entire possession of some of the largest houses, turning the occupants into the streets, even when the owners themselves were in occupation; this in direct violation of their promises. I hoped that we were safe, as our house had not a great number of bedrooms, but we were among the first to suffer, and in the afternoon of Feb. 19 a Belgian police agent arrived with an order from the Kommandantur of which the following is a translation:

Bruges. To the Belgian Police.
Kommandantur, 19.2.17.
The house at No. 20, St. Georges-street,
is hereby seized. The occupiers must va-

cate the house before 6 P. M. on the 24th, and the keys must be handed over to the guard.

Nothing must be taken out of the house but clothes and body linen.

(Signed) FREIHERR VON BUTTLAR.

Scarcely had I finished reading it when three naval officers arrived to inspect the house, and I pointed out the special hardship of the order in our case as we had not, like the Belgians in similar circumstances, any relations in the town to give us house room, neither had we money, nor means of obtaining any.

Immediately as they left the house four sentries arrived and at once installed themselves in my best drawing room, gathering together all the rugs and cushions they could find to sleep on, and lighting the log gas-fire which continued to burn night and day till we left. As I stood watching them one of the brutes, a great burly fellow, jumped on to a polished table with his hobnailed boots and lighted all the burners of the lustre. Not knowing what might happen next, I ran off to the Kommandantur to ask that they might be sent away at 9 P. M. until the following morning, as no civilian was allowed out of doors after that hour and it would therefore be impossible for us to remove anything during their absence; but the request was refused, and for the next five days we had them, (and their numerous friends,) running all over the parqueted floors and plush carpets in their heavy, dirty boots. As the weather happened to be particularly bad and wet, and these barbarians utterly ignored the use of mats, you may imagine our misery.

A day or two later our house was occupied by ten naval officers and their orderlies, bedroom furniture having been introduced into my wife's boudoir, the library, dining room, and small drawing room. Had the place been used like most of the other houses seized, simply for sleeping purposes, things would probably not have been so bad; but the "gentlemen" in possession began by making a messroom of the broad enclosed veranda which runs along the whole of one side of the house, breaking through one end of it to construct a short cut to the kitchen. It was large

enough to accommodate a great number of officers, and all the naval men quartered in the neighborhood messed there.

Besides private houses, a great number of religious, charitable, and educational establishments were seized, and used either as barracks, offices, or hospitals; among these were the Dames Anglaises and the hospital for incurable women managed by the Sisters of Charity, who were ejected in spite of medical testimony that their removal would probably result in the death of a number of the invalids. Perhaps the most brutal of all was the expulsion of these sisters. A place was selected for them and their patients in some abandoned buildings in a distant part of the country, and their departure fixed for such a time that they could not reach their destination till nearly midnight, and they found on ar-

rival that notice of their coming had only been received that same day.

The sisters in charge of the great lunatic asylum were treated in an equally barbarous manner, being ordered to be ready to start at 8 A. M. on one day, whereas no train was ready until 4 P. M. on the day following. They started at last with half the patients (some of whom were violent and had to be carried to the station bound with ropes) on a journey which was to last throughout the night and well into the next day, and this in the depth of Winter, their discomfort being increased by the fact that the bedding had been sent to the station at the time fixed, and when the travelers came to take the train they found that a considerable part of their bedding had disappeared; the remaining half of the patients followed a couple of days later.

Chronology of the Armistice Period

Record of Events From Nov. 15 Up to and Including Dec. 19, 1918

UNITED STATES

Discontinuance of press censorship in connection with cable, postal, and telegraph lines was announced Nov. 15.

Government took control of the cables operating between the United States and foreign countries Nov. 16. Newcomb Carlton, President of the Western Union Telegraph Company, placed in charge of all systems.

The Clyde, Mallory, Merchants' and Miners', and Southern Steamship Lines relinquished from Federal control Dec. 5.

The Agricultural bill, with legislative rider providing for national prohibition from next July 1 until the demobilization of the American Army, signed by President Nov. 21.

William G. McAdoo resigned as Secretary of the Treasury and Director General of Railroads Nov. 22. Carter Glass was appointed Secretary of the Treasury.

John D. Ryan resigned as Second Assistant Secretary of War and Director of Aircraft Production Nov. 22. Bernard M. Baruch resigned as Chairman of the War Industries Board Nov. 30. Dr. Harry A. Garfield resigned as Fuel Administrator Dec. 3, and Charles M. Schwab resigned as Director General of the Emergency Fleet Corporation Dec. 11.

The first troops of the expeditionary force returned on the Mauretania, which landed in New York Dec. 2. Other transports followed in rapid succession. Up to Dec. 12, 1,373 officers and 30,750 men had sailed for home.

PEACE CONFERENCE

United States Delegates to the Peace Conference were announced Nov. 18 as follows: The President, Robert Lansing, Colonel Edward M. House, Henry White, and General Tasker H. Bliss.

President sailed for France Dec. 4; arrived at Brest Dec. 13.

EXECUTION OF ARMISTICE TERMS

Twenty German submarines were surrendered Nov. 20. German High Seas Fleet of nine battleships, five battle cruisers, seven light cruisers, and fifty destroyers surrendered Nov. 21.

On Nov. 17 the allied army of occupation began its march for Germany.

Marshal Foch, with Generals Guillaumat and Gouraud, entered Strasbourg Nov. 25.

On Nov. 29 the Germans began withdrawing across the Rhine.

The American Army entered Germany Dec. 1. British troops crossed the Belgian frontier and entered Germany Dec. 3.

On Dec. 12 the armistice was extended until Jan. 17.

The American Army crossed the Rhine on Dec. 13, and the French entered Mainz.

On Dec. 16 the American Army reached its final objective at Coblenz, and the British formally occupied Cologne.

SUBMARINE BLOCKADE

According to official figures announced by the Bureau of Navigation, a total of 145 American passenger and merchant vessels, having a gross tonnage approaching 375,000 tons, was lost through enemy acts from the beginning of the war to the cessation of hostilities on Nov. 11. In all, 775 lives were lost.

The total losses of merchant tonnage by allied and neutral nations from the beginning of the war to the end of October, 1918, through belligerent action and marine risk, was 15,053,786 gross tons, according to an official announcement from London, Dec. 5.

AERIAL RECORD

When hostilities suspended American aviators had destroyed 661 more German airplanes and 35 more German balloons than the Americans had lost. The number of enemy airplanes destroyed by the Americans was 926, and the number of balloons 73. Two hundred and sixty-five American airplanes and 38 balloons were destroyed by the enemy.

NAVAL RECORD

During the war British submarines sank 43 enemy warships and 272 other vessels.

The British warship *Cassandra* struck a mine in the Baltic Sea Dec. 4.

GERMANY

King Ludwig of Bavaria renounced his throne on Nov. 16, and the next day Duke Charles Edward of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, Grand Duke Friedrich Franz IV. of Mecklinburg-Schwerin, and Grand Duke Friedrich II. of Baden abdicated, and Baden and Saxe-Meiningen were proclaimed republics.

The United Workers and Soldiers' Councils proclaimed Oldenburg, Oestfriesland, Bremen, Hamburg, and Schleswig-Holstein a North Sea republic, Nov. 22. Hamburg was named as the capital.

William II. formally abdicated on Nov. 29, and on Nov. 30 the act of renunciation was issued by the German Government.

The Crown Prince renounced his right to the throne Dec. 6, and the Prussian Government withdrew from the Hohenzollern family the privilege of immunity from law.

A Government headed by Friedrich Ebert was formed Nov. 16 and announced on Nov. 17 that bank deposits would not be seized, that the legitimacy of war loans would not be impaired, and that salaries, pensions, and other claims on the State would remain valid.

Several adherents of the Spartacus group of Socialists were killed in Berlin Nov. 22 in an attempt to seize the Police Presidency.

An agreement with the Ebert Government and the Soldiers and Sailors' Council, by which power passed to the Council, was proclaimed in Berlin Nov. 25.

Serious disturbances occurred in Berlin. The Executive Committee of the Soldiers' and Workmen's Council was arrested Dec. 6. On Dec. 7 the Spartacides clashed with returning troops and 180 casualties were reported.

Dr. W. S. Solf resigned as Foreign Minister Dec. 11.

Hugo Haase and Herr Barth, two of the three Independent Socialist members of the German Government, resigned Dec. 15. Georg Ledebour also severed his connection with the Government.

The National Conference of Soldiers and Workers' Councils met in Berlin Dec. 17.

AUSTRIA AND HUNGARY

Several hundred persons were arrested in Vienna on charges of conspiring with the Red Guard to proclaim a Bolshevik Government Nov. 20.

Formal proclamation of the Hungarian Republic was made Nov. 17. Archduke Joseph took the oath of allegiance to the new Government.

The Hungarian Government ordered the internment of General von Mackensen and his army.

JUGOSLAVIA

Crown Prince Alexander of Serbia was appointed Regent of the Yugoslav State by the National Council at Agram Nov. 26.

Italy's occupation of Fiume resulted in a protest to the Entente Powers from the Croatian National Council at Agram.

POLAND

Heavy fighting occurred between the Poles and the Ukrainians for supremacy in Galicia. The Polish troops were accused of murdering many Jews, and the Bolshevik element contributed to the general disorders.

General Joseph Pilsudski became dictator in Russian Poland.

Poland severed relations with Germany Dec. 15, charging the German authorities in occupied territories with acting contrary to Polish interests and working with the Bolsheviks. Count Kessler, the German Minister, with his whole staff, was ordered to leave Poland within twelve hours.

RUMANIA

The Transylvanian National Assembly proclaimed the union of Transylvania with Rumania Dec. 1. A resolution was passed declaring the union of all Rumanian people in all the territory they inhabit, and affirming the inalienable right of Rumanians to all the Banat Ter-

ritory between Maros, Theiss, and the Danube.

RUSSIA

Through a coup on the part of the Council of Ministers of the new All-Russian Government at Omsk, Admiral Kolchak became virtual dictator and commander of the All-Russian Army and fleet, Nov. 19.

Two Ministers, M. Avskentieff and M. Zenzenoff, who opposed his dictatorship, were arrested. General Horvath, General Ivanoff, and General Renoff, announced that they recognized the new authority.

New massacres were begun in Petrograd. Within a few days previous to Nov. 22 500 former officers had been shot.

The Councils of Livonia, Esthonia, and Courland appealed to allied and neutral Governments urging intervention in the Baltic Provinces against the invasion of Russian Bolshevik forces.

On Dec. 6 Admiral Kolchak issued an order deposing General Semenoff, the anti-Bolshevik military leader in Siberia. Colonel Valkov was named as Semenoff's successor.

Sweden recalled her diplomatic and consular representatives in Russia, charging that the representative of the Soviet Government in Stockholm had been transmitting Bolshevik literature from Russia, Dec. 8.

Word was received Nov. 20 that the Ukrainian Government had been overturned and Kiev had been captured by General Denikine at the head of pro-ally Cossacks. General Skoropadski, Ukrainian dictator, surrendered, and General Denikine was named as his successor.

The Ukrainian Bureau of Lausanne announced on Dec. 6 that Unionist forces had seized all the power in the Ukraine after a battle in Kiev, and that General Skoropadski, the Hetman, had been killed.

Russian minelayers arrived on Nov. 19 in Finnish waters off the Puumalo battery, belonging to the fortress of Ino, and began laying mines. On Nov. 20 three Russian warships flying the red flag of Kronstadt bombarded Vitikalla.

A republic was proclaimed in Lithuania Nov. 30, under the Presidency of Karl Ullman.

BELGIUM

A delegation of Socialists and Catholics asked the King of the Belgians for a more liberal constitution Nov. 16.

LUXEMBURG

The Luxemburg Chamber of Deputies adopted a motion demanding a referendum to decide the future form of government Nov. 18.

ENGLAND

Lord Robert Cecil, Under Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, resigned, Nov. 22.

Lieut. Gen. Jan Christian Smuts resigned as a member of the War Cabinet, Dec. 16.

FRANCE

The French Minister of Commerce, M. Clementel, announced on Dec. 4 that the French Government had denounced all commercial treaties containing most favored nation clauses.

MONTENEGRO

King Nicholas was deposed by the National Assembly, Dec. 2. The Assembly declared for a union with Serbia under King Peter.

SPAIN

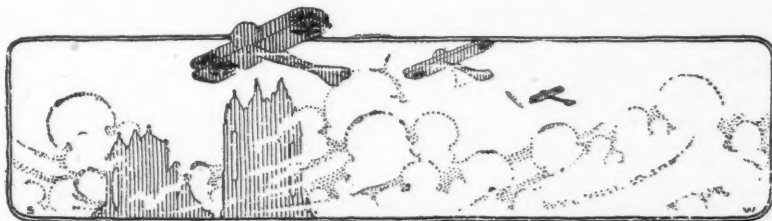
Spain recalled her Ambassador to Berlin, Dec. 9, following the announcement that Premier Romanones intended to expel the German Ambassador, Prince von Ratibor, and members of his staff, for spying and supporting the agitation against the Spanish royal family.

Catalonian Deputies in the Cortez withdrew from the Assembly and political parties in control in Catalonia declared for autonomous Government.

PORTUGAL

Dr. Sidonio Paes, President, was shot and killed by an assassin, Dec. 14. His assailant was killed by a crowd. Dr. Brito Camacho, leader of the Unionist group in the Chamber of Deputies, and Magalhaes Lima, leader of the Republican Party, were arrested.

Admiral Canto y Castro was elected President by Parliament.



Wartime Sights in an English Harbor

By EDEN PHILLPOTTS

[By Arrangement With The London Chronicle]

Mr. Phillpotts, who spent twenty years depicting the life of Dartmoor in more than a score of novels, has penned this picture of a Southern English bay as it looked on the last evening of the war:

WITH the naked eye, from a perch east of the bay, one marks little but the deep inlet of the sea, as it were a lake, with the further shore of undulating hills dotted along a rolling skyline, broken by the roofs of farms and the rounded bosses of elm trees. One marks no more save that the land breaks at the fishing village, where it lies in a dimple of cultivated fields and green woodlands. But with a four-inch telescope all is changed; the good miles between are banished and the life and business of the harbor and hilltop alike brought so near that everything proceeds at close quarters. There lack only the hubbub and noise, for, like a living picture, all goes forward in silence.

To seaward, high overhead in the blue, a spot appears no larger than a midge. Slowly it swells to the greatness of a dragon fly. Then its humming becomes audible. It is a hydroplane back from her beat above the Channel. Soon the wing spread is visible above the gondola and the floats beneath it. Then the sun flashes on her colors and shows a green body and a tail painted red, white, and blue. She sweeps in a great curve above the bay; then the drone of her engine changes, she descends as gently as a bird, and scuttles like a duck over the water through a rush of foam.

Beneath the limestone cliffs there glides the fishing fleet homing to harbor, with a hundred hulls and five hundred tan and russet sails flashing brave color in the evening glow. The irregular procession of the trawlers stretches from the Head to the harbor; and astern of each boat wheel and turn little clouds of white and gray gulls, touched to rose color by the warm radiance from the west. The catch is being cleaned for market, and the birds do well.

Soon the fleet is round the breakwa-

ter and making for moorings. Then boats put off, and the fish are rowed ashore, where auctioneers and salesmen wait for them.

Before dusk a couple of gray scouts, flying the white ensign, speed into the bay, cut a silver line through the red light that now rests upon the waters, and are soon away again; then sets out a little steamer, to guide ships to their nightly berths, for the bay is still guarded from submarine attack and the anchorage proof against all foes; and the steamboat from shore goes seaward to pick up travelers and bring them safely through the invisible barrier. They come creeping in presently, as though weary and glad to drop anchor and enjoy a night of repose in these peaceful waters. The red merchant flag of England predominates, but the allied flags and those of occasional neutrals can be distinguished.

One picks up the "Stars and Stripes" of the States, whose merchant flag and ensign are similar; the red and yellow of Spain; the blue and white of Portugal; the red, white, and green of Italy; and the red, white, and blue of France. There are strange, obsolescent types of steamships that haunt the sea nowadays, and beside the low, raking, modern vessels created by the war lie venerable, beamy ships—"dugouts"—brought from their repose to face the perils of deep water once again.

All, to the smallest cargo boat, mount a gun lifted over the stern, and nearly all, save the least, are camouflaged in wonderful and bewildering patterns. Some exhibit a stiff zebra design of perpendicular black and white bars, while others are painted horizontally with long flowing lines like the run of waves—black and white, green and blue. These appear to be best disguised, viewed from

this standpoint three miles off; but others are almost equally difficult to distinguish without a glass—craft painted cubist fashion in squares and blocks and sharp angles of black and white, russet and gray, jagged upon each other.

Even to their funnels and bridges, the steamers are thus decorated, until they present no more amorphous lumps than faint blobs of disconnected color lying upon the sea. Their lines entirely disappear, and what is visible almost ceases to suggest a ship even seen at anchor from this vantage ground 200 feet above them; but their concealment in a running sea must surely be complete, and from a periscope, or even the deck of a sub-

marine, these disguised craft would have been hard enough to find even on rare occasions of perfect visibility.

There is a splash and a leap of foam as the anchor falls from each sharp bow and the chain-cable slips through the hawser. So the ships are still, and the last sunlight glitters in their copper and glass, then dives and leaves them shapeless, gray ghosts on the gray water. The sun departs, and heavy shadows soon pour down off the hills into the haven; the last sail is furled; a squat beacon opens its ruby eye at the end of the breakwater, and the riding lights begin to glimmer gold through the gathering darkness.

To the Dead: A Dedication

By MAURICE HEWLETT

In days to come when husht the strife,
And scab of rust aligns the blade
Wherewith, to save, you ventur'd life
And all the promise youth had made;
When the red roads are all relaid
And a man dares to leave his wife
For his day's work, sure that his maid
And she are safe from German knife;

When all the kings are crown'd or dead,
And every General made a lord;
When all the thanksgivings are said,
Dealt every medal and award—
Let there be one found to record
Your deed who were content to tread
The way of death, a nameless horde,
Unribbon'd and unheralded.

I think I see the bristled spills
That stud the field where thick you lie;
I know what heavy taint distils
From countless graves in Picardy;
I see the hooded crow and pie
Preening themselves with sated bills
There where a sick and leaden sky
Hangs like a pall upon the hills:

Then, if I stand on that gray plain
Where the sea-wind for ever moans
And low clouds fling the sheeted rain
Over the sand that hides your bones,
I think to hear your undertones
That say, "Tell them there is no gain
To us in any churchyard stones
To guard the bed where we are lain.

"But say that what we had we gave
So men should hold their heads upright;
And if no man need be a slave
Henceforth, we were content to fight.
When the peace-beacon throws her light
It may not warm us in the grave;
Yet let them spare a thought that night
To us who sleep beyond the wave."

I who have learn'd your simple lore
And gain'd by everything you lose,
Chiefest to love that country more
Which breeds such men for such a use,
How should I falter and refuse
What blood my heart has yet in store,
To write in it the holy dues
Of you who fought the Holy War?

Nov. 14, 1918.

Alsace and Lorraine Again French

Historic Demonstration in Paris to Celebrate the Return of the Lost Provinces

By PERCEVAL LANDON

Paris, Nov. 17, 1918.

THE trees of Paris have stripped themselves of the cloth of gold in which they welcomed the coming of the herald of peace. Along the Champs Elysées and the Tuileries Garden the carpenters worked all night beneath the silhouette of myriads of stripped branches, darkly outlined against the brilliant haze of a moonlit sky. The châteaux, each named after a town or commune in the recovered provinces, have received the last touch of decoration; the gilt and crimson of the Presidential inclosure glitters in the bright, hard light of a sun that has not even yet melted the ice-covered gutters or the jewelry of frost that last night hung upon every twig and blade of grass.

The real work of decoration was done weeks ago, when the vast avenues and circles of guns were manhandled into their places with their muzzles depressed and their power for evil gone. These, not the flags and the festoons, are the real witnesses to the allied victory—these and the long routes of the cortège that passed today between them, from which no class or work or interest in all Paris or all France were left without its representatives. And among them the eyes of all Paris in attendance followed one section till it was out of sight, for the men of Alsace and Lorraine are coming home today after an imprisonment of forty-seven years. The great and bitter protest that they made in 1871 against their slavery has been the charter of their life from that day to this, and in the sure and certain hope of this return however slow its footsteps, they steeled their hearts in their captivity. The nightmare is ended, and in spirit all Lorraine and all Alsace today was present when the Chief Magistrate of the French Nation welcomed back her long-lost children.

PLACE DE LA CONCORDE

It would be difficult for the most inveterate boulevardier to recognize the Place de la Concorde today. Besides the sandbagged humps which protect the statues of Renown and Mercury at the gardens gate—these, by the way, have been studded all over with rusty German helmets, and bring back a sudden and significant memory of the towers of victory built by Persian conquerors, each pigeonhole of which contained a human head—the captured guns cover the surface of the square everywhere except upon the roads, and even these are encroached upon by the sulky muzzles and futurist patterns of the screens. A long row of German airplanes, almost intact, were aligned, atiptoe and ready for flight, along the wall of the Tuileries Garden, and trophies of flags made alive with bunting the fronts of the Ministry of Marine and its companion building. The statue of Lille was almost smothered with flags and garlands, conspicuous among which was the little motor flag of General Haking, the man who secured the evacuation of Lille, and then stood aside to let the French enter their own loved city first. Hard by, the statue of Strasbourg was even more ornamented.

There has been no scheme of decoration. The individual has set upon the great monuments his own little token as seemed good to him. And this want of careful prevision is characteristic of the significant and splendid spontaneity of all the celebration and ceremony of today. Paris is enjoying herself in her own fashion. In a proclamation that is still wet upon the walls the Municipal Council of Paris adjures the inhabitants thus: "Que Paris sort de la fière réserve qui lui a valu l'admiration du monde." There is a place and time for

all things, and today Paris, in the name of France, has gathered her lost ones to her breast in her own way, and the Allies feel with her to the full the poignant joy of the great redemption.

Before 11 o'clock there was already a sprinkling of men and women along the processional route, though the coldness of the weather increased, and except for a flash of sun about 12:30 the day settled down cloudy and cold. By noon all the coigns of vantage had been taken up, and the crowd, six or seven deep from end to end of the two-mile course, seemed almost to prevent the chance of others seeing much of the great event. Half an hour after noon the real importance of the crowd began to be visible. From north and south, from east and west, all Paris moved slowly inward upon the Champs Elysées and the Garden of the Tuileries. The great fountains of the Place de la Concorde burst out with a rush such as they had not known for years, and the first harbingers of the airplane squadron purred over our heads.

A GIGANTIC GATHERING

As the crowd increased, all temporary barriers were swept away; the airplanes manning the wall of the Garden of the Tuileries were scrambled over and in most cases broken to pieces by the crowd that would not be denied; every statue had its nest of human beings, and every tree, however weak, held up its human load. One o'clock came and went; but the continual tramp of Paris went on remorselessly. It was the strangest contrast in crowds that ever was seen. There was a deep happiness in every face, too profound for crying aloud, yet the crowd wore one unvarying color—black. Of course, it is true that on his holidays the Frenchman, and to a great degree the Frenchwoman also, wears black; but this was not the reason of the sable crowd of humanity that welcomed the homecoming of Alsace and Lorraine today. It was mourning, none deeper and none more profound; but it was mourning transfigured for the day, and there was not a man or woman there who did not wear black with a deeper sense that in each home some part of the great

sacrifice that victory complete and final demanded had been paid as a gift to France.

GREAT PROCESSION

At 2 o'clock salvos of guns announced the starting of the great procession, and the bronze whirring of the airplanes overhead increased to a continuous chord—the ground bass that accompanied the service of the day. Perhaps the details of the procession, as one by one they entered the Place de l'Etoile and slowly took their course down the most famous triumphal way on earth, would seem to an outsider to have differed little save in magnitude from those which in the old days used to parade in Paris from time to time. There were, of course, the obvious differences of sex, of military service, and, in one case, of childhood also. But it was in reality such a gathering not merely of Frenchmen, but of all that France stands for, as even Paris was almost awestruck to behold. The start of the procession was well handled, and the first ranks of the descending flood reached the Place de la Concorde in fairly good time. Here there were gathered to meet them the President of the Republic, the Presidents of the two Chambers, and all the great officers and Ministers of State, together with the representatives of foreign powers.

The waiting was long, and the cold increased in bitterness as the afternoon wore on, but no one seemed to notice it or care. Not one in ten thousand could hear the words of the President's speech, but all Paris knew what it wished M. Poincaré to say, and they trusted him implicitly to say it. So when the great moment came, and the guns and the released pigeons told the great message to city and country alike, Paris may well have thought the misery of the long exile of their compatriots worth the completeness of their enemy's overthrow and the triumph of this glorious welcome home.

[A translation of President Poincaré's address, delivered on this occasion, appears on the next page.]

President Poincaré's Address

The President of the French Republic delivered this eloquent address at the Paris celebration of the return of Alsace and Lorraine, Nov. 17, 1918:

The thousands of Frenchmen who prepared this great demonstration had, at the outset, the purpose simply of placing at the feet of the statue of Strasbourg the offering of their love and fidelity. Victory has come to enrich their program with a magnificent addition and to enable them to celebrate in the triumph of France the return also of Lorraine and Alsace to the maternal home.

If ever our hearts have felt regret at our inability to retard the passage of the hours so that we might enjoy at our leisure the noblest pleasure of which our souls are capable, surely we feel that emotion now in these hours of national pride and harmony, when the nation that has so long been mutilated is again made whole. Since, however, we cannot prolong these divine moments, let us at least promise ourselves to keep their memory immaculate and bequeath it as an inestimable treasure to France, the eternal.

For forty-eight years our inconsolable grief has clothed this statue of sadness and captivity with crêpe and funeral wreaths. None of us was able to pass beneath the motionless eyes of this cherished figure, mute and veiled, without seeing there the symbol of steadfastness even in servitude, and without feeling to the bottom of our souls a secret humiliation at our defeat, mingled with a lasting remorse because of our inaction.

None of us, however—and I call the whole country as witness—not one of us would have been willing, even though he might thus wash out past stains and avenge outraged justice, to take the responsibility of a single word or gesture which might kindle the first blaze of a murderous world war. In silence and resignation we waited for the waking of slumbering justice. It was Germany herself who, believing justice dying and planning to give her the final thrust, involuntarily woke her from her long sleep. It was Germany who with her own hands tore up the monstrous treaty which she had imposed upon us by vio-

lence, and which placed under foreign domination an inalienable part of indivisible France.

The war which was declared against us, and which terminated such an odious series of provocations and threats, liberated us at last from the constraint under which we had been held by our love of peace and our horror of bloodshed. From the day when these robbers of our provinces attacked us without excuse we had the right and the duty of reclaiming the national patrimony which force had torn from us.

In the memorable session of Aug. 4, 1914, the members of the French Chamber, grouping themselves patriotically about the Government of the republic, took a solemn engagement not to lay down their arms until Alsace and Lorraine had been restored to the mother country. They kept their word. For more than four years the army and the people have suffered and fought continually; for more than four years they have known the extremes of hope and disappointment; for more than four years the nation, resolved to conquer, has seen without complaint or discouragement the flower of its youth harvested by death. Yet nothing has limited its effort, nothing has weakened its will.

This indomitable energy has won its recompense. Alsace and Lorraine have again become French. Germany has been so completely overwhelmed that, even before the peace treaty has been signed, she has been forced to appeal to us to protect her retreating army against the hostility of the population. Yes, behold her reduced to convict herself of falsehood. Yesterday she declared that the Alsatian people were reconciled to the German yoke and did not wish separation from what was then the German Empire; today, in frank distress, she begs us to save her troops. "Alsace pursues me," she cries. "Alsace threatens to strike me. Hold her hands!"

Alsace and Lorraine have again become French! How glorious it is to repeat those words—once words murmured in a dream, now words of actual truth. Soon all France will go to Alsace and Lorraine to offer them enthusiastic congratulations on their deliverance. What will be the emotion of those among us who for nearly fifty years have waited, tortured by the memories of that other war, waited for this day of glory and of resurrection! What will be the emotion of the President of the council, who, with so much ardor and foresight, so much faith and success, has labored for the liberation of the captive provinces!

Alsace and Lorraine have again become French! The majority of the heroes who have died for them have never known them. They were not neighbors and friends, as some of us have been; they have not been lulled to sleep in infancy by Alsatian songs; they have not in their memories the ineffable visions of those blue mountains and broad plains. Yet they have sacrificed themselves to deliver these two captive provinces and restore them to the France which has not forgotten them. They have understood that the provinces were necessary to the unity of the nation, and that since they were torn away France has lacked a part of her flesh and a fragment of her soul.

Alsace and Lorraine have again become French! They have come into that which was theirs by right. They are French by geography, which placed both of them within the confines of ancient Gaul. They are French by decree of history, which under the ancient monarchy blended them with France; by history, which on July 14, 1790, consecrated this voluntary fusion; by history which has increased the glory of France by all the glory gained in the centuries past by

the scholars and soldiers of Alsace and Lorraine.

Unity with France is theirs by virtue of the eloquent protest made by their representatives in the National Assembly at Bordeaux; by the unanimous re-election of those same representatives after the forced annexation; by the courageous declaration which their delegates made in the Reichstag in 1874; by the voluntary banishment undergone by those who sadly left their invaded hearths, and by the decision of those who remained there to perpetuate French traditions in the bosom of their family and cherish jealously the holy flame of memory.

To justify the return of Alsace and Lorraine to France, it is only necessary to recall these centuries of past glory, followed by years of bitter sorrow shared in common. A plébiscite would add nothing to the eloquence of facts. A plébiscite would be a mockery, since it would not be able to record the votes of the inhabitants of Alsace and Lorraine who were driven from their homes by the treaty of Frankfort. It would be a denial of justice, because it would submit to a new decision the liberties which these populations had long possessed before they were torn from them by violence. Restitution, pure and simple! Reparation for the past demands it. The conscience of the world insists upon it. The victory of our arms assures it.

All honor to our armies who have saved France and forced the demoralized enemy to beg for armistice and peace; to the allied armies who have matched our own in courage and endurance. But above all, we render homage to the dead. Their shell-torn bodies lie in the devastated regions where the fate of the world was decided, but their image will be forever enshrined in our hearts. All honor to the dead, the immortal ones who shall teach us how to live!



The German Revolution

Chancellor Ebert's Cabinet and Dr. Liebknecht's Radicals Among the Contending Forces

[PERIOD ENDED DEC, 15, 1918]

POLITICAL and other events in Germany continued as seen through a mist of drifting crosscurrents. A strong Government leadership with a definite policy could be distinguished but vaguely in development. Amazing topsyturvy changes swiftly followed one another throughout the former empire. The Council of National Plenipotentiaries under the Presidency of Chancellor Ebert, composed of three majority Socialists and three Independent Socialists, proceeded to fill the chief departments of State as follows:

Foreign Office, Dr. W. S. SOLF.
Treasury, Dr. SCHIFFER.
Economics, Dr. AUGUST MUELLER.
Industry and Demobilization, Dr. KOTH.
War Food, EMANUEL WURM.
Labor, Dr. BAUER.
War, Major Gen. SCHEUCH.
Admiralty, Vice Admiral MANN.
Justice, Dr. PAUL KRAUSE.
Post Office, Dr. RUEDLIN.

Dr. Solf, the most prominent member of the Cabinet, had been Foreign Secretary since the retirement of von Kühlmann. Dr. Schiffer was a leader of the National Liberal Party and formerly was Under Secretary of the Imperial Finance Ministry. Dr. Müller was a Social Democrat and formerly Under Secretary of the War Bureau. General Scheuch had been Prussian Minister of War. Vice Admiral Mann had been appointed Secretary of the Navy early in October, and previously was head of the U-boat Department of the Navy. Both Emanuel Wurm and Dr. Bauer were Socialist members of the Reichstag. Dr. Paul Krause was a National Liberal and was appointed Secretary of Justice in the Prussian Cabinet in August, 1917. He was Second Vice President of the Prussian lower house. Dr. Ruedlin had been Director of Railways and Minister of Posts in the Prussian Cabinet since August, 1917.

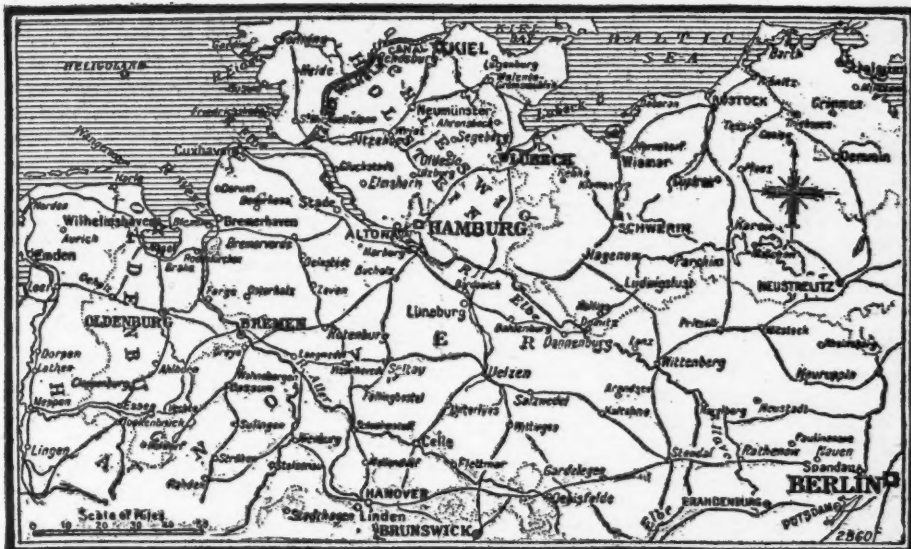
The Spartacus group of Extreme Radicals remained unrepresented, though Haase and Barth, differing from Dr. Liebknecht on the exercise of violence, had seats at the Council of National Plenipotentiaries. Announcement was made that the Government purposed holding elections for a National Assembly early in January, and that it held the support of the majority of the soldiers.

At the same time reports indicated great confusion throughout Germany owing to the powers assumed by various councils, committees, and officials. With this went a kaleidoscopic formation of new parties, chiefly noticeable being a regrouping of the Extreme Spartacides under Dr. Karl Liebknecht. Of councils, in Berlin figuratively these flourished on every tree of Unter den Linden, (now rechristened Roten Linden—Red Linden.) Thus, besides the Council of Soldiers and Workers there were the Council of Stock Exchange Men, the Council of Academicians—including professors and students—the Council of the Reformed Liberal Parties, that of Berlin Municipal Employes, that of Gardeners and Peasants, and many others. All these bodies were engaged in energetic debates and the passing of resolutions which, to the outside world, seemed to have but an obscure relation to the national crisis.

PRINCE MAX'S EXPLANATION

Two important documents bearing on the armistice and peace proposals were now issued in Germany. In the first ex-Chancellor Prince Maximilian of Baden explained his position:

My peace policy was entirely upset by the proposal for an armistice, which was handed to me in complete form on my arrival in Berlin. I fought against it for practical and political reasons. It seemed to me a grave mistake to allow the first



THE INSURGENT MOVEMENT, WHICH BLAZED OUT AT KIEL, SOON SPREAD ALL OVER GERMANY, FROM THE RHINE PROVINCES TO BERLIN AND THE BALTIC PORTS

step toward peace to be accompanied by such an amazing admission of Germany's weakness.

Neither the enemy powers nor our own people believed our military situation to be such as to make desperate measures necessary.

I proposed that the Government as a first measure should state exactly its program of war aims and demonstrate to the world our agreement with President Wilson's principles and our readiness to undergo heavy national sacrifices to fulfill those principles.

I was told in reply that there was not time to wait for the effect of such a statement, and that the situation at the front demanded that a proposal for an armistice should be made within twenty-four hours, to be supported by publication of the names of a new and unimpeachable Government.

A week later the military authorities informed me that they had been mistaken in the judgment they had formed concerning the situation at the front on Oct. 1.

LIEBKNECHT'S MANIFESTO

Follows the flaming Call to Arms of the Social Revolution by Dr. Karl Liebknecht, issued in the days just before the armistice:

Dear Comrades: For more than four years our rulers have been engaged in a robber war for the oppression of our neighbors. During the last ten or twelve years these same rulers have preached the bad doctrine of "Slavic danger." They

sowed in our hearts fear of the Slavs. But this was merely camouflage for further imperialistic aggression. As if the way to St. Petersburg lay through Belgium and Northern France, they gave orders to let the armies loose.

During these four years the peoples of the world have bled until they can bleed no more. And what have we won? Have we won one hundredth part of what we and our rulers started out to get? Instead of this, we have lost until we have nothing more to lose. One thing we have won—the hatred of mankind.

And now we have, through the President of America, asked our enemies for peace. Comrades, now comes for you a fitting opportunity. Unite. Hold together under the banner of the "International." You should not hold yourselves as discouraged. It was never your war. You were driven by your rulers into the world slaughter. You have got what you deserved. It now lies with you to dismiss your rulers.

Act at once. It is your only prospect. Stretch the tyrant at your feet with a mighty blow. He now wavers. A well-aimed blow will at this time win your freedom, and will to some extent recompense you for all the blood that has been shed during the last four sad years.

Lay down your weapons, you soldiers at the front. Lay down your tools, you workers at home. Do not let yourselves be deceived any longer by your rulers, the lip patriots, and the munitions profiteers. Rise with power and seize the reins of government. Yours is the force. To you belongs the right to rule. Answer the

call for freedom and win your own war for liberty.

For more than four years have your oppressors used you as the tools with which to fill their pockets. More than four years have they offered your sons, fathers, brothers, as victims and have starved millions, so that they might coin profits out of your blood.

Had you won the war you would have remained helpless slaves; you are beaten. Victory is within your grasp. It lies with you to seize it.

Comrades! Soldiers! Sailors! And you workers! Arise by regiments and arise by factories. Disarm your officers, whose sympathies and ideas are those of the ruling classes. Conquer your foremen, who are on the side of the present order. Announce the fall of your masters and demonstrate your solidarity. Do not heed the advice of the Kaiser Social Democrats. Do not let yourselves be led any longer by unworthy politicians, who play you false and deliver you into the hands of the enemy.

Stand fast like many of the genuine Social Democrats in your companies and regiments. Seize the quarters of your officers; disarm them immediately. Make sure that your officers sympathize with you. In case they do so, let them lead you. Shoot them immediately in case they betray you after they have declared themselves supporters of your cause.

Soldiers and marines! Fraternize! Take possession of your ships. Overpower first your officers. Place yourselves in communication with your comrades on land and seize all harbors and open fire, if necessary, on loyal groups.

Workers in munition factories: You are the masters of the situation. Stop work immediately. From this moment on you are only making bullets which will be used against you and yours. The bullets which you now make will never reach the front.

Stop making bayonets which will be thrust into your entrails by the knights of the Government. Arise, organize, seize weapons and use them against those who plan to make slaves of you after they have made their own peace. End the war yourselves and use your weapons against the rulers.

FEAR OF BOLSHEVISM

By Nov. 18 the last German ruler had abdicated and the revolution was everywhere predominant. Harold Williams, however, wrote from Geneva that, as seen from there, it was "extremely unlike the Russian revolution—no exultation in liberty, no particular indignation against the authors of the national mis-

"fortune, no recognition of the wrong done by Germany to the world, not the faintest sign of national repentance. The overthrow of the German monarchs is regarded with indifference or scarcely concealed regret. * * * The discipline of the German people is surprising. It apparently submits to the new authority as readily as to the old and is only concerned to adapt itself to new conditions. The prevailing anxiety is to maintain order, in view of the demobilization and the Bolshevik danger."

In corroboration of this danger, Friedrich Ebert, opposing the formation of Red Guards, issued this statement:

I have no anxiety for the new Government, because it is sustained by the confidence of the masses. We have received news that the troops were orderly when the armistice was declared. In the back areas, however, it was different. Many cases of haste to return home are reported. In Baden and Württemberg the troops streaming back from the front constitute a great danger to security.

Negotiations are in progress to obtain food from America, for food is what we need. Peace and order mean transport facilities. All Soldiers' Councils must place themselves at the service of the Government to hasten demobilization. Democracy can march only if its head is untouched. Then, too, we have the prospect of getting peace conditions which at least may be somewhat favorable.

If the enemy sees anarchy among us, he will dictate conditions which will destroy German economic life. Therefore, go forward to common work for the future.

EFFORTS OF EBERT CABINET

An additional statement put forward conjointly by Ebert and Haase was intended to reassure the masses in their financial holdings. Its three clauses follow:

First, we do not intend to confiscate any bank or savings bank deposits nor any sums in cash or bank notes or other valuable papers deposited in the bank safes.

Secondly, we do not intend to cancel any subscriptions to the Ninth War Loan, or in any other way to impair the legitimacy of those loans. The Government, however, is determined to enforce the strictest measures that large fortunes and great incomes shall contribute appropriately toward the public expense.

Thirdly, salaries, pensions, and other

claims on the State, held by officials, employees, officers, wounded and other soldiers and their relatives, will remain absolutely valid.

During the ten days thereafter reports and counter-reports regarding the stability of the Ebert Cabinet, in face of the attacks by the Spartacides, sped one after the other out of Germany. Violent speeches by such as Dr. Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg instigated some rioting in Berlin, but the total result in loss of life and property damage was insignificant—fifteen deaths in all.

KURT EISNER'S ATTACK

Throughout Southern Germany, however, there were manifest signs of growing irritation with the indecisive policy of the Berlin Government. It was especially the case in Munich. Premier Kurt Eisner, who had come to the front as anti-Prussian, vigorously denounced the Ebert Cabinet, and demanded the immediate summoning of an all-German National Assembly. He was supported by Bavarian soldiers in rejecting any form of dictatorship by the Berlin Council of Soldiers and Workers. Further, in a proclamation to the Saxon people, "the new Government of Saxony declared that it was striving for the abolition of the old Federal Constitution, and for the union of the Saxon and German peoples in a republic, including German Austria. Self-government and the protection of their cultured interests should be granted to the component parts of the republic. The authority of the Soldiers' and Workers' Councils should be defined most speedily by the National Council. * * * Expenditure could be covered by assessments on big fortunes, especially those derived from war profits. Incomes derived from the exploitation of labor should be abolished."

A telegram from Berlin announced that Philipp Scheidemann had resigned as Minister of Finance, and been succeeded by Herr Landsberg, Secretary of Publicity, Art and Literature.

On Nov. 24 a new republic of the North Sea Coast was proclaimed, with Hamburg as its capital. A resolution of the Kiel Greater Workers' and Soldiers'

Council declared that "all banks, principal industries, and great landed property should be national property. All legislation shall be in the direction of the socialization of the State, in collaboration with the Soldiers' and Workers' Councils. The bourgeois class to be excluded." At the same time the Council of the People's Commissioners issued the following welcome to returning soldiers, signed by Chancellor Ebert, Hugo Haase, Philipp Scheidemann, Dittmann, Landsberg, and Barth:

You marched into the field for the Fatherland when you had nothing to say and a handful of autocrats had the power in their hands and distributed the booty among themselves. You had to fight in silence, while hundreds of thousands at your side had to die. Today you return to your own country, where in the future only the people themselves will have anything to say.

Germany free, our Socialist public will join the League of Nations. You will find not only all the political rights you hitherto have been deprived of, but the Fatherland shall also be your property economically.

United labor and action in a Germany possessing a Government relying upon the workers and soldiers can alone help us and obtain from our former enemies peace.

FEDERAL CONFERENCE

Before an assemblage of seventy delegates representing twenty-one German States, Commissioner Ebert opened a Federal Conference on Nov. 25 to formulate the rules of the promised National Convention. In the debate Dr. Solf and Herr Erzberger were scathingly attacked by Premier Eisner of Bavaria as "unaware that a tremendous earthquake had shaken Germany." He also demanded more definite phrases from Ebert, and, for the Southern States, that the convention be not called in Berlin. Toward evening machine guns were posted in front of the palace where the delegates sat in conference as a warning to the Liebknecht wing of the Spartacus group. The main result of the conference was the selection of Frankfurt for the National Convention. Otherwise it developed indications of a political break between Berlin and Southern Germany, and the setting up of a Rhine Republic.

On the heels of the conference Dr. Karl Liebknecht issued a pronunciamiento to the proletarians of all nations asserting that the only salvation for the world was socialism and demanding that peace be "concluded under the banner of the world's revolution."

INCREASING CONFUSION

Meanwhile, strikes were reported as spreading throughout German industrial regions. Factories in Berlin and Dresden threatened to run down to a standstill. The new Government was declared to be in danger of a counter-revolutionary plot, in which high military officers of the empire were involved. On Nov. 27 Kurt Eisner, the Bavarian Premier, announced that relations had been broken off with the Berlin Foreign Office, "owing to the efforts of Berlin to deceive the people by withholding the truth about conditions." In turn Eisner was denounced by Berlin as a dreamer and non-German. Baden followed in the demand for a rupture with Berlin. The Soldiers' Council of Greater Berlin, at a stormy plenary meeting, appointed a representative of each of the seven regiments in Berlin to weigh charges against the Executive Council. Ebert and Haase issued a warning that Liebknecht's Spartacus element had seized control of all wireless stations, and that they would not assume responsibility for such dispatches at home or abroad. From out the political turmoil attention mainly centred on the struggle between Chancellor Ebert and Bavarian Premier Eisner.

On Dec. 1 the German Government announced an investigation into the German crimes in Belgium, including the murders of Edith Cavell and Captain Fryatt. It named as responsible General von Sauberzweig, the former Military Governor of Brussels; General Baron Kurt von Manteuffel, Military Commander at Louvain, and Baron von der Lanchen, Civil Governor of Brussels.

A military plot to restore the Kaiser was frustrated. Among the leaders were said to have been Field Marshal von Mackensen, General von Boehn, and General Sixt von Arnim, together with Lieutenant Dr. Gustav Krupp von Bohlen.

PROLETARIAN RULERS

The new Military Governor of Berlin, Otto Wels, formerly a trade union Secretary, granted an interview to an American correspondent, in which he stated that the Government counted on 10,000 republican guards to maintain order; all other troops were controlled by the Council of Soldiers and Workmen. He added that the Spartacus group did not want a National Assembly, and if they gained control it would be because the Allies had failed to send food. The correspondent estimated that 200,000 troops were returning to Berlin at the rate of 80,000 a week.

The mania for forming councils of every profession and trade spread to the Berlin Opera House. There a farcical parliament of artists, singers, ballet dancers, stage hands, musicians, and supers debated self-determination of salaries and hours of attendance. As an extreme example of the general topsyturvydom it was stated that the President of the Republic of Brunswick was formerly a mender of old clothes, the Vice President a juggler at the Café Maxim, and the Minister of Education a woman who could hardly read or write.

At a great mass meeting in Cologne on Dec. 6, definite plans were presented for the formation of a separate Westphalian Republic. The following resolution was unanimously adopted:

In view of the radical political changes, recognizing the impossibility of creating a proper Government in Berlin, and convinced that the countries adjacent to the Rhine and Westphalia have in themselves sufficient political, cultural, and economic power to form a new State, this meeting expresses its firm will to uphold the unity of the German Fatherland, but at the same time to undertake the construction of a new German State to be composed of the Rhineland and Westphalia. To that end this meeting asks the recognized leaders of all parties in the Rhineland and Westphalia and other adjacent countries as soon as possible to arrange a proclamation of an independent Rhenish-Westphalian Republic as a part of Germany.

EBERT'S POPULARITY

In Berlin the Spartacides seized upon the return of the soldiers to create disturbances. While the soldiers marched

on Dec. 6 to demonstrate their loyalty to the Ebert-Haase Government, the Spartacides countered with a demand for demobilization. In the street fighting which resulted some 180 casualties were reported. Columns of underofficers marching toward the palace were at first thought to be bent on a revolution, but on the appearance of Ebert tremendous cheers dispelled any such doubt. He addressed them from a table, which had been placed on the pavement, announcing his earnest desire to maintain law and order and adding: "We are determined that nothing and nobody shall prevent us from calling a national convention at the earliest possible moment."

Ebert's personality completely won his audience. He was saluted with loud shouts of "The German Republic and her first President, Comrade Ebert!" An advance detachment of Guard regiments entered on the scene carrying immense posters reading: "We shall stand no nonsense from either the Spartacides or the Junkers." One of the body mounted the table vacated by Ebert. "We must not permit ourselves," he cried, "to be made the tools of sinister aims against the Government. Therefore we must organize ourselves." Ebert spoke again, whereupon both columns, followed by an immense crowd, moved to the War Ministry, and thence to the Prussian Building, now the headquarters of the Soldiers' Council, where more speeches were made. The attempt of the Spartacides to incite the returning soldiers to upset the Ebert Government thus failed.

THE SPARTACIDE REVOLT

About this time red bills were posted all over Berlin with the inscription: "Kill Liebknecht wherever you meet him; he is your and your country's worst enemy." Liebknecht was reported to be surrounded by bodyguards, and to be sleeping every night in a different place. Considerable liberty of speech, however, was still granted the Spartacides. A dispatch from Berlin Dec. 7 noted the disappearance of red flags, and in their place the city fluttered with red, black, and gold revolutionary emblems of 1848.

A clearer view of the conflict between the returned soldiers and the Spartacides on Dec. 6 recalled scenes in Petrograd after the revolt. Mobs of citizens apparently in doubt as to which side to support made a third party to a wild tumult. A pandemonium of rioters surged into the public offices and spread over the city. Dr. Karl Liebknecht darted hither and thither delivering violent street corner speeches. Machine-gun and rifle fire claimed numerous victims and shattered plate-glass windows in the principal streets.

A notable incident was the attempted arrest of the Executive Committee of the Soldiers' and Workers' Council by returned soldiers under the impression that it was opposed to the Government. Herr Barth of the Government, however, pleaded with the soldiers on behalf of the Council. The subsidence of the near revolt was as remarkable as its outburst. By Dec. 8 events had fallen back into a drifting state, but had left greater confusion in the Socialist ranks. An investigation of the riot was ordered by Dr. Solf. Meanwhile, the old Junker and Pan-German parties in new guises began to reassert themselves. Rumors of plot and counterplot filled the political atmosphere to the exclusion of any definite policy.

Elsewhere in Germany, Herr Auer, having been forced to resign from the Bavarian Ministry by armed soldiers, was reinstated by Kurt Eisner, the Premier. In Baden, August Thyssen and a number of other great manufacturers were arrested and ordered sent to Berlin to face charges. At Chemnitz a Uhlan regiment refused to disarm and routed adherents of the local Soldiers' and Workers' Council. In Saxony all the royal property and estates were seized by the new Government.

On Dec. 10 Berlin reported that more troops had been sent for by the Ebert Government to crush a Spartacus revolt at Potsdam. At the same time the principal merchants of the city had gathered to discuss Anglo-German trade relations. On Dec. 11 the Berliner Tageblatt announced that the Reichstag would be summoned next week to give a parliamentary basis to the new Government.

Berlin was said to be stirred by reports that the Allies intended to occupy the city. Many women thrown out of work were joining the Spartacides.

RESIGNATION OF DR. SOLF

Dr. Solf resigned from the Cabinet on Dec. 11. Efforts of the Soldiers' and Workers' Council to persuade Adolph Joffe and M. Radek of the former Bolshevik Russian Embassy at Berlin to return to take part in the forthcoming Congress of Councils on the 12th were checked by the Government. Jan. 1 was fixed as a day of general rejoicing in Berlin in honor of the revolution. A message from Berne, Dec. 12, stated that seven Baden frontier villages had passed resolutions for unity with Switzerland.

Premier Eisner of Bavaria granted an interview to an American correspondent in which he stated that he did not want to be a statesman, but to tell the truth, and that the people were in a mood to be freed from the past. Subsequently, at a meeting of the Independent Socialists, he declared himself opposed to the acts of the Berlin revolutionary Government, "because right was a better weapon than might. But," he added, "if anybody dares to disturb revolutionary accomplishments then it must be force against force." He asserted that he had driven Solf and Erzberger from office. Spartacism appeared openly in Munich, demanding the resignations of Ebert and Scheidemann and others connected with the "blood bath" of Berlin.

STRIKE IN BERLIN

Large numbers of workers went on strike in Berlin on Dec. 13 for higher wages and "famine subsidy." Foremost publishing houses, together with the great firms of Siemens & Halske and Schwarzkopf & Co., were especially affected. Various councils, having taken control of the industrial situation, ordered a suspension of operation. The employees of Schwarzkopf's paraded the streets carrying red flags bearing the inscription, "Spartacus Gesellschaft, formerly Schwarzkopf & Co."

The German armistice was extended until Jan. 17 at 5 A. M. by the allied

leaders at Treves. The Allies reserved the right, if the necessity should arise, to occupy the right bank of the Rhine north of the Cologne bridgehead and as far as the Dutch frontier, thus giving them possession of the great Krupp centre, Essen.

On Dec. 14 Konstantin Fehrenbach, President of the Reichstag, having convoked a meeting of that body on his individual initiative, announced that he reserved "further indication of the time and place of meeting." Fehrenbach's action caused much uneasiness even among those favorable to the plan. The commission appointed to make a preliminary draft of a national constitution reported completion of its deliberations. The new constitution was said to have been modeled on the American and English charters. The resignation of Dr. Solf remained, so far, unaccepted, though insisted upon by Haase and Barth, the two minority Socialist members of the Cabinet. A threat of virtually all the trained officials of the Foreign Office staff to resign if Dr. Solf went was the cause of Ebert's and Scheidemann's hesitation to face entire disorganization of the foreign work of the Government with the departure of Solf. Soldiers of the Prussian Guard removed Liebknecht's red flag from the Town Hall at Potsdam.

CLASH OF RIVAL PLANS

The Council of People's Commissioners authorized the formation of a volunteer national guard to maintain public safety. The new organization was to be under complete control of the commissioners, and pledged to defend the Socialist Democratic republic. Against this plan the Spartacus group issued the following program of immediate steps for safeguarding the revolution:

Disarmament of all police officers, non-proletariat soldiers and all members of the ruling classes.

Confiscation by the Soldiers' and Workers' Councils of arms, munitions, and armament works.

Arming of all grown up male proletarians and the formation of a Workers' Militia.

The formation of a proletariat Red Guard.

Abolition of the rank of officers and noncommissioned officers.

Removal of all military officers from the Soldiers' and Workmen's Councils.

Replacement of political organs and the authorities of the former régime by representatives of the Soldiers' and Workmen's Councils.

Abolition of all Parliaments and municipal and other councils. The election of a General Council which was to elect and control the Executive Council of the soldiers and workmen.

Cancellation of all State and other public debts, including war loans, down to a certain fixed limit of subscription.

Expropriation of all landed estates, banks, coal mines, and large industrial works.

Confiscation of all fortunes above a certain amount.

In Munich Liberal and Centrist political leaders launched a campaign for dissolution of the Soldiers' and Workers' Council. They demanded temporary re-establishment of the former Bavarian Assembly as the only means of preventing allied occupation of Munich. Confu-

sion of ideas prevailed throughout Germany. In some parts great dissatisfaction with the Soldiers' and Workers' Councils had led to the formation of People's Councils. Again, younger men of good intentions were too apt to rely on the argument of machine guns. Opinion was divided on the subject of Bolshevik danger. While German soldiers returning from the front were anti-Bolshevik, against this was set the approach to the German frontier of a Russian Bolshevik army with the declared object of establishing a front on the Rhine.

The Central Congress of Delegates from Soldiers' and Workmen's Councils, 450 in attendance, met at Berlin Dec. 16. The Radical Socialists were overwhelmingly defeated; a resolution to invite Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg, their leaders, to attend the Congress as guests was defeated five to one.

Holland and the Refugee Ex-Kaiser

The situation of the ex-Kaiser and Crown Prince as refugees in Holland became one of the main themes of political discussion in Germany. On Nov. 30 the text of the Emperor's abdication, only two days old, was issued at Berlin. It read:

By the present document I renounce forever my rights to the crown of Prussia and the rights to the German imperial crown. I release at the same time all the officials of the German Empire and Prussia and also all officers, noncommissioned officers and soldiers of the Prussian Navy and Army and of contingents from confederated States from the oath of fidelity they have taken to me, as their Emperor, King, and supreme chief.

I expect from them until a new organization of the German Empire exists that they will aid those who effectively hold the power in Germany to protect the German people against the menacing dangers of anarchy, famine, and foreign domination.

Made and executed and signed by our own hand with the imperial seal at Amerongen, Nov. 23, [1918.]

WILHELM.

On the same date the Cologne Gazette published an interview with Dr. Wegener, in which he stated that five days before the Emperor fled from Germany the

former ruler had endeavored to shift the blame for beginning the war to the shoulders of Dr. von Bethmann Hollweg; that it was Bethmann who had insisted on the Kaiser's yachting trip to Norway to "prevent war," and that the Kaiser knew only of current events from Norwegian papers. "I knew no more about it than that," Dr. Wegener quoted the Kaiser. "Against my will they sent me to Norway."

In a dispatch from Amerongen, George Renwick described the surroundings of the ex-Emperor in exile. In the two weeks following his flight from Belgium he had secluded himself more and more, but upon occasion was seen at a window writing as if against time. From villagers it was gathered that he had become greatly dejected, and even the arrival of the former Empress had failed to lighten his mood. That he was suffering no financial distress, however, was indicated by the fact that he had \$4,760,000 cash available in bank. Meanwhile, a demand for his extradition and trial for high crimes was taken under consideration by the Allies. The Dutch Government took the position that, as the

Kaiser had abdicated the crowns of Germany and Prussia, his status was that of a private citizen not subject to internment. On the other hand, his military suite were compelled to deliver their swords.

DUTCH PREMIER'S PRONOUNCEMENT

The Netherlands Government, however, showed increasing uneasiness regarding the presence of its uninvited guest. On Dec. 10 Premier Reys de Beerenbrouck delivered a speech in the lower house of the Dutch Parliament relative to the ex-Kaiser. Here is the official text of it as given out by the Netherlands Legation at Washington:

It will not be a matter of surprise to the Chamber when her Majesty's Government declare that also to them it would have been preferable if circumstances had induced the ex-Kaiser to choose his place of refuge elsewhere.

On Nov. 9 the abdication had taken place. The ex-Kaiser is shown to have fully recognized the fulfillment, by his crossing the Dutch border, of the abdication proclaimed by the German Government. He considers himself a private person.

On Sunday, Nov. 10, the Government learned that in the early morning of that day the ex-Kaiser had entered Netherlands territory. We were faced with the fact. The Government had not had the slightest knowledge of plans for a flight to Holland. All stories and suppositions to the contrary are pure fabrications. Neither directly nor indirectly has any person connected with the Netherlands Government taken any steps in the matter. This also in contradiction of the newspaper rumors about General Van Heutz.

The Government were completely surprised by the arrival of the ex-Kaiser. The Government have been well aware of the fact that the country will derive no benefit from allowing asylum in the case. They have, however, considered that a refusal of asylum was inadmissible, as such a refusal would have been in contradiction of a tradition which has been alive and in existence for centuries.

From the moment that the ex-Kaiser was within the Netherlands borders it became a matter of urgency for the Netherlands Government to decide where his abode would be. There could be no question of free choice. A place of residence was, therefore, assigned to the ex-Kaiser by the Netherlands Government.

The Government are aware of the in-

terest taken in the fate of the ex-Kaiser, both in Holland and abroad, and are now faced with the question of the future. The Government can take no other view than that of the fait accompli, combined with that of the right of asylum. The Government totally reject as contrary to the truth every supposed connection between the presence of the ex-Kaiser on Netherlands territory and any alleged unneutral views or actions on their part.

Account will have to be taken of the development of international events, as well as of the situation within the country. With a view to the latter, guarantees must be obtained that, in case of a continued presence of the ex-Kaiser, no disturbances need be feared. In contrast with the utterances of more or less prominent persons and organs of the press in foreign countries, no foreign Government has protested against the presence of the ex-Kaiser in Holland.

The feeling abroad may, however, lead to a situation in which the Netherlands Government would be faced with a formal demand for extradition. Such demand would then have to be tested in the light of the existing laws and treaties. It is also possible that foreign Governments should wish to confer with the Netherlands Government in order to assign to the ex-Kaiser a permanent place of residence. Without wishing to anticipate in the matter, the Netherlands Government state that for various reasons they might be willing to participate in such consultations, provided a solution in accordance with the honor and dignity of the country would be proposed.

The Netherlands Government, in conclusion, regard, therefore, the presence of the ex-Kaiser as provisional. A definite stand will be taken as soon as the moment for a final decision shall have arrived. The Netherlands Government are firmly resolved not to allow any infractions—for example, with a view to influence the political situation—of the simple right of asylum. The Netherlands people, as well as the foreign nations, may confidently rest assured as to this.

Though the former Kaiser received further intimations that his presence was not altogether desirable, he showed no inclination to change his place of residence.

CROWN PRINCE'S ABDICATION

The former Crown Prince, in contradicting a report that he had abdicated at the same time as his father, stated: "I have not renounced anything, and I have not signed any document whatever." He added that, should the German Government decide to form a re-

public, he would be content to return to Germany as a simple citizen, ready to do anything to assist his country—even to working as a laborer in a factory. But three days later, Dec. 6, he issued the following:

I renounce formally and definitely all rights to the crown of Prussia and the imperial crown, which would have fallen to me by the renunciation of the Emperor-King, or for other reasons.

Given by my authority and signed by my hand; done at Wieringen, Dec. 1, 1918.

FREDERICH WILHELM.

His internment on the Island of Wieringen was witnessed by a NEW YORK

TIMES correspondent. Thither he was brought on a small Government yacht to inhabit the extremely modest local parsonage. For Dutch neighbors there were none other than fisher folk. Though seemingly ill at ease he struggled hard to present a pleasant exterior, and skipped ashore with a sad effort to appear unconcerned. The correspondent was moved by this dismal plight of the former heir to the imperial throne of Germany to recall the pompous message delivered by the ex-Kaiser about six months before: "This morning William stormed the Chemin des Dames."

The Naval Mutiny at Kiel

Germany's military collapse and the beginning of the German revolution are shown, by increasing evidence, to date quite definitely from the attempt of the desperate Imperial Government to send the German fleet out for a final battle. The men of the High Seas Fleet refused to be sacrificed in that way, and the most critical moment of the mutiny came on Oct. 31, 1918, when one half of the fleet seemed about to open fire on the other half. The tense situation is described in the following letter from a German marine to his father, published in the *Bergische Arbeiterstimme*:

It is to be hoped that this letter does not get into wrong hands. Great things have happened in our Imperial Navy. All the ships of the line and armed cruisers are mutinying. Perhaps something of the matter has reached your ears, but I will here tell you about it clearly and distinctly.

We with our flotilla had been for some time in the North Sea, and had been in touch several times with the British and had observed from various signs that something was going forward. As we now wanted to put in for a few days, we saw the whole German fleet, with all the big ships and torpedo boats, lying at anchor, and we had also to lay to. Every one was amazed; no one knew anything definite. Suddenly it was said that the Fleet Commander wished to manoeuvre in the German Bight. Naturally, no one was taken in by this obvious absurdity; but imagine the stupidity of undertaking great naval manoeuvres in the middle of a crisis.

The first order to be ready for sea was fixed for Wednesday night, and then it was postponed till Thursday, [Oct. 31.] We

who were in the ships lying at a little distance away did not know what was taking place. We heard, indeed, some whispering of mutiny and uproar, but did not believe it. Yesterday the order was issued by the commander of the First Squadron that B 97 and B 112 and no other ships of our half-flotilla were to be at his disposal at 8 o'clock. At that hour we went alongside S. M. S. Ostfriesland, and the commander of the First Squadron came aboard us. We did not know what to make of the whole business, until the commander of our half-flotilla had the whole crew summoned on deck. He then delivered a speech which I shall never forget during the rest of my life.

Something deplorable had happened. The crews of various ships in all the squadrons had refused to obey. When the fleet should have put out to sea the men had used the fire-extinguishing apparatus and extinguished all the boiler fires. They had done the same at every order to make ready for sea, and consequently prevented the fleet from putting out. They were asked their reason for this conduct, and they answered that they would disobey no other order, but would in no circumstances put out to sea. They would not take part in the German fleet's battle of desperation.

Those in high quarters said to themselves, "Let us, rather than surrender the fleet, stake everything on one card; let us blow everything to smithereens rather than surrender our fine fleet to the British." As the commander of S. M. S. Thüringen said, "We will fire our last 2,000 rounds, and will go down with flying colors." The sailors said to him that he would have to go out alone, and then the smash-up started. In the First Squadron it was worst in the Thüringen and the Helgoland. The mutineers had barricaded themselves in the forepart of the ship. In

the Helgoland they took possession of three guns.

I cannot give a full report of our half-flotilla commander's speech. He told us straight that when ordered to do so by the commander of the torpedo boat appointed for that purpose, in case "duty" should demand it, we must train our guns on our own comrades. I cannot relate to any one what we were required to do. We got our machine guns, guns, and torpedoes ready, and proceeded to perhaps some 200 yards from the Thüringen. Meanwhile a steamer with 250 marine infantry had arrived to remove the rebels. Should they refuse to go aboard B 97 must intervene with her guns. Dear father, if you knew how I felt when we had aimed our guns at our comrades—what impotent rage filled me. But what were we to do? It all came so suddenly—no understanding with other ships, no one to back us up. But we still continued hoping that the matter would end up satisfactorily. Ultimately after an hour

the rebels gave in and displayed the Red Cross flag. They then quietly allowed 600 men to be brought aboard the steamer.

A weight fell from our hearts. We were within a hair's breadth of destruction, for even if we did not fire on our comrades we had trained on us three 15cm. (6in.) guns, and if only one shot had been fired from our guns there would have been not a splinter left of B 97. I shall never in my life forget Oct. 31. It was a thousand times more terrible than at Oesel and in the Channel.

In the Helgoland and some other vessels the tumult had meanwhile somewhat abated. They had indeed attained their end. The fleet will not put to sea in the near future, and if we in any case must also suffer by it our time is nevertheless coming soon or peace must come soon—otherwise we shall make peace ourselves. The navy will take no further hand—if only the army and the people would follow soon. * * *

Berlin's Greeting to Returning Soldiers

Defeated Troops Hailed as Conquerors

The following description of the first formal entry of the defeated German troops into Berlin was sent from that city Dec. 10, 1918, by a correspondent of The New York Times and CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE:

PUNCTUALLY at 1 o'clock the head of the procession reached the Brandenburger Gate. It was composed of four companies of Prussian, Bavarian, Württemberg, and Baden Infantry. So dense were the masses that these companies at first found it impossible to make headway, and the first squadron or two following had to make a roundabout way to Unter den Linden. There must have been millions of patriotic sightseers about this time.

General Lequis with his staff appeared at the head of the Guards. He and his officers wore field-gray uniforms, which hardly distinguished them from the others, seeing that all wore steel helmets. The only decoration seen was the General's Order Pour le Mérite. In the centre of Pariser Platz, General Lequis was met by Mayor Wermuth and People's Commissioner Ebert. Greeting the returning troops, Wermuth emphasized the everlasting thanks which, he said, were due the troops for fighting four years to

the bitter end. The speech of Chancellor Ebert was as follows:

Your deeds and sacrifices are unexampled. No enemy overcame you. Only when the preponderance of our opponents in men and material grew ever heavier did we abandon the struggle.

You endured indescribable sufferings, accomplished incomparable deeds, and gave, year after year, proofs of your unshakable courage. You protected the homeland from invasion, sheltered your wives, children, and parents from flames and slaughter and preserved the nation's workshops and fields from devastation.

With deepest emotion the homeland thanks you. You can return with heads erect. Never have men done or suffered more than you.

The German people have shaken off the old rule. On you, above all others, rests the hope of German freedom. The hard requirements of the victors are heavy upon us, but we will not collapse. We will build a new Germany. With the strength and unshakable courage which you have proved a thousand times, see to it that Germany remains united and that the old misery of a system of small States does not overtake us again.

The unity of the German Nation is a work of religion, of socialism. We must work with all our strength if we are not to sink to the state of a beggar people. You are laying down the arms which, borne by the sons of the people, should never be a danger but only a protection for the people, whose happiness your industrious hands must build up from new foundations.

Ebert was interrupted repeatedly by roars of applause from the multitude. While he was speaking a Spartacide agitator sought to attract the attention of the masses in a corner of the square. He succeeded so well that he was rushed by the soldiers and locked in the Art Academy.

When Ebert finished the bands began to play "I Had a Comrade Once," and the procession proceeded to Unter den Linden. There were some fourteen Guard Regiments in line, some carrying parts of their trains along, notably still smoking ambulant kitchens, nicknamed goulash guns. The troops received a heartier welcome than they would have if they had come as victors with Kaiser Wilhelm at their head.

The following description of the entry was written by a Berlin correspondent of the Rotterdam Courant:

The entry of the Guard Regiments through the Brandenburger Gate was a remarkable manifestation of national sentiment. The pressure in the streets was so great as to endanger life. The march of the entering troops in regular formation was at first impossible.

Eventually men from the entering troops had to be told off to assist in making a way for their comrades. Nowhere had cordons been formed in advance, not even in front of the grand stand, from which members of the Government watched the spectacle, but the mad throng was good-humored and this was shared by the troops in spite of their violent exertions and almost hopeless efforts to keep back the crowd.

In wave after wave the soldiers struggled forward amid flags, greenery, and flowers. In front of the procession marched a row of soldiers holding high banners in the colors of the new republic, black, red, and gold. Then came detachments representing regiments of all the Federal States with their own colors in their rifle barrels. First came the Bavarians with their blue and gold, fine fellows, still well equipped, and many on horseback. Others were seated on caissons, which were also covered with flowers and greenery.

Alongside many of the infantrymen marched their wives or sweethearts. The cheering was not very loud, but ran as a murmur along Unter den Linden, where all the windows, balconies, and roofs were occupied by spectators. Neither on the houses nor among the incoming soldiers were any red flags to be seen, but from the Russian Embassy the symbol of revolution was flown. Some of the bands played "Deutschland über Alles," others played soldiers' melodies, but not a single revolutionary tune was heard.

On the grand stand in Pariser Platz one saw far above the crowd Ebert and Burgomaster Wermuth, with one General. Ebert was wearing a silk hat, like many other bourgeois spectators. No high officers were seen in the procession.

Flowers and cigarettes were thrown from the windows and balconies to the passing troops, who were also met by motor cars laden with brilliant chrysanthemums. Berlin was once more a military town, full of enthusiasm for the soldiers and their deeds.

There was nothing in the entry to call to mind the national defeat. In spite of the lack of sunshine the picture was full of color by reason of the lavish display of flags and flowers. All the afternoon the troops were passing through, coming from the west, and tens of thousands of people did not tire of watching them.

Political Confusion in Austria

Attempts at Self-Determination

[PERIOD ENDED DEC. 15, 1918]

THE war left the former empire of Austria-Hungary in a condition of political and economic chaos surpassed only by that of Russia. With the abdication of Emperor Charles on Nov. 11, 1918, each nationality in the heterogeneous empire devoted its energies to creating an independent Government and seizing what it considered its share of territory and economic resources. In some cases three or four rival factions contended for control of the new Government.

In the former kingdom of Hungary the Jugoslavs, Rumanians, Ruthenians, and Czechoslovaks claimed eighty-three provinces, though there were only sixty-three in the whole kingdom; rival nationalities were claiming the same territory. The Hungarian State was practically reduced to the city of Budapest and the neighboring plain as far as the Rumanian line. Formal proclamation of the Hungarian Republic was made Nov. 17.

The collapse of the Magyar hegemony had created a serious economic situation. The Hungarian coalfields were occupied by the Czechs and Jugoslavs, and neither Budapest nor Vienna could get food or coal from the provinces that had formerly been under their control. By the end of November Vienna was in desperate need. The Czechoslovaks refused to send any food unless Austria relinquished all claim to certain mixed German and Czech districts of Bohemia.

Of the political situation in German Austria a correspondent wrote on Nov. 16:

Four political groups are striving for ascendancy. There is the German National Committee, of which some Socialists like Herr Seitz are members. This committee has raised a National Guard, wearing yellow, red, and black cockades. Against this committee there is one composed of the Viennese Democrats, who are opposed to union with Germany. They, too, have raised a National Guard, wearing white and red cockades. There is a committee of extremists, mostly workmen, with their National Guard, wearing red

cockades. Finally, there is a party working in the dark, headed by Cardinal Piffi, and aiming apparently at the restoration of the monarchy. Their plot, however, was discovered and Cardinal Piffi was placed under guard.

German Austria from the first voiced its desire to be annexed by Germany. Under Secretary of State Bauer at Vienna telegraphed to Commissioner Haase of Berlin on Nov. 15: "German Austria has given expression to its will to be united again with the other parts of the German Nation from which it was forcibly separated fifty-two years ago." He begged that negotiations for such a union might be entered upon at once.

The first and most strongly organized element of the former empire was that of the Czechoslovaks, who, on Nov. 15, proclaimed a full-fledged republic, with its capital at Prague and with Professor Thomas G. Masaryk as President. When the Czechoslovak National Assembly ratified the choice of Masaryk as President at its first session, Nov. 19, it also chose Dr. Karl Kramarz as Premier and Franz Tomasak, former member of the Reichsrat, as President of the National Assembly. Two days previously the United States Government had extended a credit of \$7,000,000 to the new republic.

Dr. Kramarz for many years had fought for the rights of the Czech people. He was arrested at Prague on July 1, 1915, and, following his trial at Vienna, was sentenced to death. King Alfonso of Spain appealed in his behalf and the death sentence was commuted to fifteen years' imprisonment. Dr. Kramarz was released under Emperor Charles's amnesty proclamation on July 14, 1917. He said to an interviewer Nov. 19:

Our chief ambition is to live peacefully and prosperously and to become a strong friend of the Entente against the Germans. We also desire to establish the frontiers of ancient Bohemia. However, we will be fairer with the Germans than they were with us. We will not oppress

those within our borders. We will give them every liberty, their own schools and language, but the Government must be ours.

Meanwhile the South Slavs had been laboring to organize the Republic of Yugoslavia, with its temporary capital at Agram, and with the ultimate aim of becoming part of a greater State headed by Serbia. An important meeting at Geneva on Nov. 7 settled the details for this union. The agreement was made between Nicholas Pashitch, Prime Minister of Serbia, and delegates from the National Council of Agram (Croatia) as representatives of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes. The delegates to the conference were the President of the Yugoslav Parliamentary group of the Vienna Reichsrat, Dr. Anton Koroshetz, and two other members of the Agram National Council, Dr. Chingria and Dr. Chorovitch, Premier Pashitch, and Dr. Anton Trumbitch, President of the Yugoslav Committee in London. The proceedings were thus summarized by Professor Voyslav M. Yovanovitch, Director of the Official Serbian Bureau at Washington:

In a written note presented to the conference the delegates from Agram asked the Serbian Government and the other allied Governments to recognize the National Council of Agram as the supreme power of a State newly constituted within the frontiers of the Serbo-Croato-Slovene Nation, hitherto being parts of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, and as Commander in Chief of the fleet of that State, until the formalities of the final union with Serbia were carried out.

They further asked that the Yugoslav troops should be recognized by the Allies

as a belligerent and friendly force, and gave Dr. Trumbitch full powers to represent the National Council of Agram before the allied Governments until a common organ was created to assure the common diplomatic representation.

The conference unanimously hailed with enthusiasm the creation of a common Ministry for the United Serbian, Croat, and Slovene State.

The conference further proclaimed that there were no longer any interior political or customs frontiers between the entire Serbian, Croat, and Slovene territory. The local administration of the Yugoslav countries will not for the time being undergo any modification. The changes to be made will be definitely settled by the Constituent Assembly.

The conference further protested against the action of the Italian authorities on Yugoslav territory.

The National Council at Agram on Nov. 26 chose Crown Prince Alexander of Serbia to be Regent of the Yugoslav State. Later Montenegro also took action toward a full union with the new State under Prince Alexander.

From the time of Austria-Hungary's collapse there were conflicting claims between Italy and Yugoslavia regarding the allotment of former Austrian territory on the eastern side of the Adriatic. The clash of interests was most marked at Fiume, whose occupation by the Italians was made the subject of strong Yugoslav protests. Similar friction ensued in Galicia between the Poles and Ukrainians, in this case with bloodshed. As the year 1918 drew to a close, indeed, the whole distracted area of the former Dual Monarchy was bristling with problems for the Paris Peace Conference to settle.



Demobilizing the War Machine

How the United States Government Entered on the New Tasks Confronting It After the Armistice

[PERIOD ENDED DEC. 18, 1918]

THE energies of the United States Government in the period following the signing of the armistice were chiefly directed toward the reduction of its military and naval forces and the dismantlement of the huge war machine that it had constructed. This of necessity involved many momentous problems. The process, if too sudden, would invite economic disaster. Yet it was felt that the country should be put on a peace footing without unnecessary delay. Modifying both these points of view was the fact that, while hostilities had ended, peace had not been concluded, and that conditions in the Central Powers were restless and unsettled.

It was announced on Nov. 19 that Secretary Daniels had issued to all ships and stations of the navy an order which expressed the desire of the department that all members of the regular service and of the Naval Reserve force who had enlisted for the duration of the war should be released as soon as possible. Application for such release was to be made in writing and indorsed by officers in command who would forward them to the Bureau of Navigation. This applied to officers as well as men of the Naval Reserve Force.

DEMobilizing STUDENT CORPS

On Nov. 26 an order was issued from the War Department for the demobilization of the Students' Army Training Corps, which had been instituted on Oct. 1 in 500 colleges and universities throughout the country. It was estimated that this would result in the discharge in December of about 150,000 students from the United States Army.

Many of the students had been either in college or about to enter before they became members of the corps. When demobilized these continued their studies, with the exception that military drill and

instruction were dropped. Members of the corps who had been taking mathematics and other studies which form a part of the regular curriculum received credit for work done in those studies when they returned to the normal college course. Officers of the corps desiring to remain in military service, if recommended by their commanding officers, could continue in the service.

DISBANDING THE ARMY

In accordance with a statement issued by General March, United States Chief of Staff, on Nov. 16, the demobilizing of the men in camps in this country was progressing at the rate of 30,000 a day.

Troops from abroad began to arrive in large numbers on Dec. 2, when the Mauretania brought in 4,000. After that time every day witnessed the arrival of shiploads of troops. It was stated at Washington on Nov. 29 that the War Department had named October, 1919, as the time when the last regiments of the American Army would be returned from France. For the present 470,000 men were to constitute the army of occupation under Major Gen. Dickman, and the rest of the troops would be returned as rapidly as the department deemed possible or advisable. Boston, New York, Newport News, and Charleston were designated as the ports at which returning troopships would land the men, who would be debarked as near to their homes as this arrangement made possible.

WORK FOR RETURNING SOLDIERS

In his annual report, made public Dec. 11, Secretary of the Interior Lane outlined a comprehensive plan for the employment of disbanded army men. "As an immediate program," said the Secretary, "we should first offer an opportunity upon our present irrigation projects for all who wish work at clearing

"and leveling the land not now cultivated, but for which water is available. * * * As a second step I would urge an appropriation for one or more of the largest irrigation schemes for which surveys are in an advanced state." Mr. Lane continued:

After a soldier has returned to his home, if his old position is not open and he wishes to turn to an independent life, there would be laid before him a number of projects which the Government had undertaken in the different sections of the country. Let us assume no more than three—one an irrigation scheme, another a drainage project, a third the development of a body of cut-over lands. The one would need to have great dams constructed to impound and divert waters, a hydroelectric plant, miles of canal and tunnel, perhaps, thousands of acres to be cleared and leveled, fenced and broken. This would mean years of work at good wages, work in the open under housing conditions that would seem palatial to the soldier of the trench, and at the end a piece of land on which would be erected a house and barn, a farm home in a group of farm homes. For this he must pay. But already he has received wages out of which he can have saved the necessary first installment on his place of 10 or 15 per cent. The balance with interest he can pay in forty yearly installments, or earlier if he can.

Mr. Lane declared that in the United States there are more than 200,000,000 acres of waste land which can be made into farms.

HIGH MORALE OF ARMY

Not a single member of the American Army had been put to death since the beginning of the war because of the commission of a purely military offense, Major Gen. Crowder, Judge Advocate General, stated in his annual report Dec. 9. General Crowder said this fact was the outstanding feature of his report. Very few death sentences had been imposed, and none of those imposed for purely military offenses had been carried into execution.

Records of the Judge Advocate General's office showed that 12,357 officers and men were brought before general courts-martial, of whom 10,873, or 88 per cent., were convicted. More than half the charges against officers were listed under three heads: "Absent without leave, drunkenness, and conduct unbecoming an officer."

Convictions of enlisted men for desertion were actually less than in the previous years, although the strength of the army had increased many fold.

The report showed that one enlisted man was tried and convicted of "being a spy," and that 773 men were convicted of sleeping on post.

GENERAL HEALTH CONDITIONS

In his annual report, Dec. 6, Surgeon General William C. Gorgas stated that the health of the American Army both at home and abroad had been excellent, and the mortality rate from disease probably lower than in any similar body of troops in the history of warfare.

Complete statistics of deaths in army camps were not included in the report, which covered only the fiscal year to June 30, 1918. In 1917 total deaths from disease were 2,984, and the death rate per thousand 6.3. This compares with a seven-year average of 4.9 per thousand. Contrasting this record with that of previous years, General Gorgas pointed out that if the morbidity of typhoid fever had been the same as in 1898 there would have been 1,400 deaths from that disease alone, whereas there were only 23. Measles was placed at the head of the diseases causing death, although the report showed that 65 per cent. of the deaths were due to resultant pneumonia.

Between 300,000 and 350,000 deaths from influenza and pneumonia occurred among the civilian population of the United States since Sept. 15, according to estimates of the public health service made public Dec. 4. These calculations were based on reports from cities and States keeping accurate records, and public health officials believe they were conservative.

The epidemic still persisted, but deaths were much less numerous. A recrudescence of the disease was occurring in many communities throughout the country, but this was believed to be sporadic and not to indicate a general renewal of severe epidemic conditions.

Insurance companies had been hard hit by the epidemic, Government reports indicated, although there were no figures available to show total losses sustained

by these companies. The Government incurred liabilities of more than \$170,000,000 in connection with life insurance carried by soldiers in army camps, not including those in Europe. About 20,000 deaths occurred in the camps in the United States, War Department records showed.

Though the War Department had announced, on Nov. 23, that the total casualties in the American Expeditionary Forces had aggregated 236,117, the detailed casualty lists were slow in coming, and the total of these lists on Dec. 15 was only 157,605.

CUTTING DOWN EXPENSES

A report made Nov. 29 by John Burke, Treasurer of the United States, to the Secretary of the Treasury, after showing that the public debt on June 30, 1918, was \$12,396,000,000, stated that it cost \$5,645,000,000 to run the American Army during the year ended June 30, 1918; \$1,368,000,000 for the navy, and \$1,516,000,000 for the civil Government proper. The Shipping Board spent \$862,000,000, and \$181,000,000 was paid out in pensions. The grand total was \$9,572,000,000.

Representative Sherley, Chairman of the House Appropriations Committee, estimated Dec. 5 that at least \$12,000,000,000 would be saved by the various executive departments of the Government through cancellation of war contracts and cessation of unnecessary work. Mr. Sherley said, after reading a statement from the Secretary of War, which was submitted to the committee, that more than \$7,000,000,000 out of the \$24,000,000,000 appropriated to the War Department would be covered into the Treasury through the cancellation of contracts and the saving in other directions.

The statement of Secretary Baker showed that the total appropriations for the army since the United States entered the war were \$24,281,000,000. Of this amount there had been disbursed up to Oct. 31, 1918, in the United States \$9,159,000,000, and in France \$1,168,000,000. The total amount disbursed and obligated in Europe and America was

\$14,753,000,000. This left a remainder of \$9,528,000,000 unobligated.

The amount obligated but not disbursed was given as \$4,250,000,000. The Secretary expressed the hope of saving \$2,600,000,000 of this sum. Estimated savings in the cancellation, termination, and reduction of contracts were:

Ordnance	\$800,000,000
Medical Department.....	82,000,000
Signal Corps.....	10,000,000
Engineer Corps.....	229,000,000
Aircraft production.....	402,000,000
Military aeronautics.....	5,000,000
Chemical Warfare Service.....	20,000,000
Quartermaster Corps.....	400,000,000

The Secretary said that he expected to effect a total saving of \$12,000,000,000. On Dec. 5 recommendations for termination of contracts aggregated approximately \$2,613,000,000. Some of the larger contracts canceled were:

Power and expenses.....	\$275,000,000
Artillery and ammunition.....	750,000,000
Rifles and machine guns.....	53,000,000
Motor vehicles.....	282,000,000
Textiles (cloth).....	264,000,000
Airplane parts.....	256,000,000
Gas defense equipment.....	130,000,000
Iron and steel products and railway materials.....	53,000,000
Construction Division material and facilities	150,000,000

More than a billion dollars had been cut from the navy's estimates of expenditures for the coming fiscal year. Secretary Daniels stated that the estimates sent to Congress were based on the war program, and that the reduction process that already had eliminated over two-fifths of the \$2,600,000,000 total was continuing.

EXPENSES OF WAR PERIOD

The annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. McAdoo, issued on Dec. 4, among other striking features showed how the American people paid billions in taxes, raised four great Liberty Loans, and created a pool of credit with which the Treasury paid the bills of the army and navy, the Shipping Board, and other Government departments, lent billions to the Allies and millions to war industries, helped support the families of soldiers and sailors, and tided farmers over periods of financial stringency.

For the fifteen months ended with

June, 1918, Secretary McAdoo estimated that the actual cost of the war, with allowances for the Government's ordinary expenses in ordinary times, amounted to \$13,222,000,000. Nearly half of this, or \$6,499,000,000, went into permanent investments in the form of ships, shipyards, war vessels, army camps, buildings, and in loans to allies or to American war industries. Of the year's expenses 31.6 per cent. came from taxation.

The civil establishment of the Government during the year spent \$1,507,000,000, while the War Department spent \$5,684,000,000 and the navy \$1,368,000,000. For the support of the army alone the Government paid out \$4,412,000,000. The naval expenditures included the construction of new vessels, machinery, armament, equipment, and improvements at navy yards. Total ordinary disbursements for the year amounted to \$8,966,000,000, and ordinary receipts, excluding money received from Liberty Loans, amounted to \$4,174,000,000. Loans to allies during the year amounted to \$4,739,000,000 additional.

Mr. McAdoo forecast expenditures for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1919, at \$20,687,000,000 for Government purposes and \$1,375,000,000 for loans to allies and \$2,540,000,000 for redemption of outstanding certificates and other debt cancellation. Total estimated disbursements for the year were put at \$27,718,000,000.

The United States public debt June 30, 1918, was \$12,396,000,000, without taking into consideration the \$1,319,000,000 free balance in the Treasury partially to offset the debt. The public debt had been increased since then by the Fourth Liberty Loan of nearly \$7,000,000,000, and by Treasury certificates of indebtedness amounting to several hundred million dollars.

The Secretary's report disclosed for the first time the activities of the Treasury's sinking fund to buy up Liberty bonds in an effort to keep their price from falling far below par. Up to Nov. 1, it was shown, \$244,036,500 worth of bonds, face value, had been purchased in the open market for \$234,310,000, or at an average price of about 96 per cent., and subsequently held by the Treasury. Of this

sum \$172,445,000 were Second Liberty Loan bonds, of both 4 and 4½ per cent. issues, \$70,935,000 were Third Liberty Loan bonds, and \$656,000 were First Liberty Loan converted bonds.

TOTAL WAR DEBTS

The Federal Reserve Board authorized the following, Nov. 20:

The successful placing of the Fourth Liberty Loan, by far the greatest public debt operation of the kind in history, calls attention to the continuous and extensive increase of the obligations of the belligerent countries as the war proceeded. While final figures are in most cases available only up to a relatively recent date and while therefore an element of estimate must be employed in every computation which seeks to show the present status of public obligations, it may be stated in round numbers that the war indebtedness of all kinds incurred by the belligerents on both sides is probably not far from \$175,000,000,000. As compared with the total estimated wealth of the world prior to the outbreak of the European war, this figure therefore represents a very material proportion.

The close of the war leaves all the belligerent countries, our own among them, with a very difficult price and credit situation as a consequence of the inflated state of credit throughout the world. It is therefore obviously the interest of any country which can do so to avoid any aggravation of conditions by careful adjustment of its financial program to the underlying economic factors. There is nothing that can be accomplished by inflation that cannot be better accomplished in other ways less objectionable in their economic effects.

NAVAL CONSTRUCTION

Figures disclosed in the annual report of Rear Admiral Griffin, Chief of the Bureau of Steam Engineering, Dec. 12, showed that, one month before the war ended, the American Navy was operating a total of 1,959 vessels of all descriptions, of which 264 were actively participating in the war in European waters.

Admiral Griffin said the regular navy on the date of his report consisted of 570 ships, supplemented by 93 vessels from the coast guard, lighthouse service, Coast and Geodetic Survey, and fish commission. In addition, the navy was then operating 937 converted merchant craft, yachts and the like, and the naval overseas transport service, consisting of 247

Shipping Board and other supply vessels, with 112 more about to be commissioned. Construction under way for the regular navy at that time included 376 new ships of all kinds and 52 tugs.

"Since the United States became a belligerent," the report states, "the magnitude of the engineering work of the navy, both mechanical and electrical, not only in its actual amount but in the rapid development of facilities for its execution, has been without parallel for the same period of time in the history of the world's navies."

To keep up the fleet abroad, three repair bases were established in France, one in Great Britain, one at Gibraltar, and two in the Mediterranean. These were supplemented by six repair ships, which achieved remarkable results in repairing vessels at sea.

On Dec. 5 the Clyde, Mallory, Merchants and Miners, and Southern Steamship Companies were relinquished from Government control and returned to their owners. Steamship companies owned by railroads were retained under the management of the Railroad Administration. The four lines turned back to private management had been taken over by the Government on April 13 under war powers of the President and their operation consolidated with other steamship lines under the Railroad Administration.

VALUE OF DRAFT ACTS

General March, Chief of Staff, paid a tribute to the value of draft legislation in a report to Secretary Baker on Dec. 5. He said in part:

I recommended to you on July 18, 1918, the adoption, as the American program, of eighty divisions in France and eighteen at home by June 30, 1919, based on a total strength of the American Army of 4,850,000 men. This was approved by you and by the President of the United States and adopted as our formal military program. To carry this program into effect required the adoption by Congress of a change in the draft ages so as to include men between the ages of 18 and 45 years, and also created a deficiency over the enormous appropriations already made by Congress of some \$7,000,000,000. The presentation of the program to Congress, accompanied by the statement that this increase in the army, if laws were passed

by Congress which would make it effective, would lead to success in 1919, produced prompt and favorable consideration by that body. Up to the signing of the armistice troops were being transported to France monthly in accordance with that program. The results speak for themselves.

RESIGNATION OF OFFICIALS

The virtual termination of the war was followed by numerous resignations of officials who had been prominent in war activities. The most important was that of Mr. McAdoo, Secretary of the Treasury and Director General of Railroads. His letter of resignation reviewed his work of the last six years and stated that he needed a long period of rest. His prime motive for resigning, however, was declared to be the necessity of recouping his personal fortune, which had been impaired by his long service in Washington. The resignation was accepted by the President on Nov. 21 in a letter which expressed deep regret and warm appreciation of the service Secretary McAdoo had rendered to the country. Carter Glass of Virginia was appointed to succeed Mr. McAdoo as Secretary of the Treasury, and entered on his duties Dec. 16.

On Nov. 21 John D. Ryan resigned as Director of Air Service and as Second Assistant Secretary of War. The resignation of Charles M. Schwab as Director General of the Emergency Fleet Corporation was accepted by the President on Dec. 7. On Dec. 3 Dr. Harry A. Garfield handed in his resignation as Fuel Administrator, and it was accepted the same day. Bernard M. Baruch's resignation as Chairman of the War Industries Board was accepted on Dec. 4, to go into effect Jan. 1, 1919.

By an order issued Dec. 13 Postmaster General Burleson removed Clarence H. Mackay, President of the Commercial Cable Company, George G. Ward, Vice President, and William W. Cook, General Counsel, from all connection with the operation or control of the cable lines owned by that company, and Newcomb Carlton, President of the Western Union Telegraph Company, was placed in charge of all the cable systems taken

over under the President's proclamation of Nov. 2.

AIRPLANE MOTORS

It was developed at the War Department, Nov. 27, that, when the armistice was signed, contracts had been awarded for the manufacture of 95,993 airplane motors. The original number of Liberty motors contracted for was 22,500. This was raised to 51,100 Liberty twelves. Contracts also were made for 10,000 Hispano-Suiza 300 horse power motors, 8,000 eight-cylinder Liberty motors, and other models.

The production up to the signing of the armistice was 31,814, of which 15,131 were Liberty motors. In October 5,603 motors were turned out, with a contemplated production of 8,000 in January, 1919, and 10,000 a month for the four months following. Besides the 31,814 motors, the War Department provided 12,000 airplanes and 700 kite balloons.

NATION-WIDE PROHIBITION

On Nov. 21 President Wilson signed the Emergency Agricultural Appropriation bill with its legislative rider providing for national prohibition from July 1, 1919, until the United States Army should be demobilized. The Agricultural bill including the amendment prohibiting the manufacture of beer and wine after Dec. 1 passed the Senate on Aug. 29, 1918. That was known as the "bone dry" measure. The amendment soon passed the House, and President Wilson clinched it on Sept. 18, 1918, by issuing a proclamation which included the prohibition of near-beer or other substitute beverages.

The President's proclamation stated that the use of foodstuffs and foods for brewing of malt liquors, including near-beer, for beverage purposes, after Dec. 1, was prohibited. The President called attention to the fact that the prohibition applied regardless of whether the beverage contained alcohol.

Anticipating the end of beer brewing, some of the large breweries in the country turned their activities toward the manufacture of near-beer. One of the largest breweries erected an additional

plant solely for the manufacture of a beer substitute. The Food Administration promptly followed up the President's proclamation by ordering the malting of grain stopped.

CONTINUED FOOD SHORTAGE

On Sunday, Dec. 1, a message from Mr. Hoover, United States Food Administrator, was read in churches throughout the country. It said in part:

Again in full confidence, I call upon the American people to set aside Sunday, Dec. 1, and the week following, for the consideration of America's opportunity for renewed service and sacrifice.

The change in the foreign situation necessarily alters the details of our food program, because the freeing of the seas from the submarine menace renders accessible the wheat supplies of India, Australia, and the Argentine. The total food demand upon the United States is not diminished, however. On the contrary, it is increased. In addition to the supplying of those to whom we are already pledged, we now have the splendid opportunity and obligation of meeting the needs of those millions of people in the hitherto occupied territories who are facing actual starvation. The people of Belgium, Northern France, Serbia, Rumania, Montenegro, Poland, Russia, and Armenia rely upon America for immediate aid. We must also participate in the preservation of the newly liberated nations in Austria; nor can we ignore the effect on the future world developments of a famine condition among those other people whom we have recently released from our enemies. All these considerations mean that upward of 200,000,000 people, in addition to those we are already pledged to serve, are now looking to us in their misery and famine. Our appeal today is, therefore, larger than the former appeal to the war conscience of our people. The new appeal is to the "world conscience," which must be the guiding inspiration of our future program.

The Federal Food Board furnished, Dec. 1, the following estimate of what was required from America:

We must provide food for our armed forces abroad—at present more than 2,000,000.

Help provision the big allies—France, England, and Italy, approximately 125,000,000 people.

Furnish a greater part of the food necessary for the little nations starved under the German yoke—the Belgians, Serbians, Rumanians, Greeks, Czechs,

Jugoslavs, and others, embracing some 75,000,000 people.

Send food to the 50,000,000 people in Northern Russia, many of whom are already facing famine conditions owing to the collapse of transportation facilities and lack of organized Government.

Assist the neutral States in Europe, embracing about 40,000,000 people, who are now all on short rations, and the 90,000,000 enemy people to secure for themselves the food necessary to sustain life.

Export between 18,000,000 and 20,000,000 tons of food to Europe and at the same time keep sufficient food in this country to maintain the health and strength of our own people.

ALIEN PROPERTY HELD

The following synopsis of the trust accounts of the Alien Property Custodian was rendered as of Oct. 31, 1918:

Cash deposited with Secretary of Treasury:	
Invested in Government securities	\$54,786,443.82
Uninvested	4,544,126.32
	<hr/>
	\$59,330,570.14
Cash with depositaries.....	9,545.78
Stocks	169,306,959.65
Bonds (other than investments made by Secretary of Treasury)	59,365,453.15
Mortgages	11,720,995.74
Notes receivable.....	6,167,031.98
Accounts receivable.....	50,648,582.18
Real estate.....	7,567,987.55
General businesses and estates in operation or liquidation, merchandise, miscellaneous investments, &c.....	89,278,885.39
Enemy vessels.....	34,193,690.00
	<hr/>
	\$487,649,701.56

Number of trusts reported to Alien Property Custodian....	27,755
Number of trusts opened.....	19,371

European Neutrals and the Armistice

Effects of Germany's Collapse on Holland, Scandinavia, Switzerland, and Spain

[PERIOD ENDED DEC. 15, 1918]

FOR the neutral nations of the world the problems of the war, even though it was not their war, overshadowed all other political questions. So it was that the signing of the armistice on Nov. 11, 1918, was celebrated on the west coast of South America with scarcely less enthusiasm than in London, Paris, and New York.

The neutral countries near or bordering on Germany felt the harsh impact of the revolution in the Central Empires. The fall of the Kaiser and his flight was a signal for loud demands from the radical parties in all these countries. In Holland there was for a few days a real fear of an overthrow of the Government. In Switzerland a general strike began, which was to be—in the minds of Bolshevik and German leaders—the beginning of a violent revolution. Copenhagen had its syndicalist riots, and in Sweden there was a manifesto calling for the establishment of a republic. All

these revolutionary movements quickly subsided, but in all the neutral countries the days since the ending of the war have been a time of strain and stress.

The following is a brief summary of the principal events in the recently neutral European countries from the signing of the armistice to Dec. 15, 1918:

HOLLAND

The sharp crisis through which Holland passed during the middle of November was indirectly the result of the surrender of the German Army and directly the result of the German revolution. Through the four years of the war Holland had been drawn this way and that by the two great warring forces between whom she stood. The end of the struggle released pent-up streams of discontent among her masses which for a few days caused a widespread uprising and an outbreak of violence against the Government.

At the very time of the signing of the armistice speeches made by the Socialist leader Troelstra and others of his party caused the wildest excitement throughout the country. Troelstra declared openly that the time had come for the working people of Holland to take the affairs of Government into their own hands, and that they would not be content with demanding what they wanted but would take it by revolution, and at the same time he warned against anarchy and Bolshevism.

"We shall have to discuss the important question whether we shall elect a Supreme Council of Soldiers and Workmen for the whole country," he said, "and also the creation of local councils. If we decide that, then the National Council from that moment is the supreme authority in the country."

At the same time the National Revolutionary Committee issued a manifesto demanding the sweeping away of royalty and the diplomatic service, renunciation of the State debt, and many other radical changes.

At the session of the Second Chamber on Nov. 13 Troelstra renewed his attack on the Government and the Queen. He said among other things at that meeting:

We now assert that the militarist influence emanates from the Queen and her entourage, which is in contradiction at every point with the spirit of the people. The Government appeals for order because the Social Democracy sees that the moment has arrived to take over the power of the State. The workers will not abandon their rights for a mess of pottage. We do not desire anarchy or violence, but the historic events in Germany happened practically without violence, because there they understood that the moment had arrived for socialism. We should betray the workers if for fear of violence we allowed this historic moment to pass. The Government will not be able to rely upon the army because the army consists of workers who have been treated by the wealthy classes in such a manner that the army has become their worst enemy. Neither will the Government be able to rely upon two-thirds of the police force to act against the Social Democrats. We aspire to power because the Government no longer has the power or the right to Government.

At the same session of the Chamber another revolutionary Socialist, David Wynkoop, made a speech demanding the

immediate abdication of the Queen and calling for a general strike of the workingmen of the country. He proposed that the demobilizing troops should not surrender their arms until they were assured of food supplies for themselves and their families.

The Government of Queen Wilhelmina took energetic steps to meet this outbreak of radical feeling and discontent. A proclamation addressed to the people on Nov. 14 urgently appealed for co-operation during the "grave crisis" that had arisen. It said that a minority was threatening to seize power in the State and announced the Government's intention to maintain its authority and keep order.

The Government proceeded to make good its word. Soldiers were put on guard at public buildings, cavalry was sent to patrol the streets of The Hague, and troops were assembled in Amsterdam, where revolutionary demonstrations had taken place. The Government recalled from London M. Colyn, the former Minister of War, as one who could wield a great influence in his country. There were a few minor clashes between the troops and the demonstrators.

The trouble in Holland subsided as quickly as it rose, and ended in enthusiastic expressions of loyalty toward the Queen, whose personal popularity was a strong influence for order. On Nov. 18 thousands of people assembled on the parade grounds at The Hague to pay homage to the Queen. Her husband, the German Prince Henry, shared in the demonstration, as well as the members of the Cabinet and the President of the lower house, all of whom were present.

At the same time Troelstra and the leaders of the radicals, realizing the failure of their attack on the Government, withdrew from their position, and by Nov. 20 an English observer in Holland could report that the revolutionary agitation had completely broken down. A great demonstration in favor of the Socialists had been arranged for that day, and there was considerable apprehension, but when the crowds came together in the various centres the orange rosette of loyalty was seen everywhere and the whole demonstration resolved

itself into an expression of fealty to the established Government. It was then clear that the German revolution had been stopped at the frontier. Holland had thus escaped the first shock of the violent catastrophe in Germany.

Discontent in Holland was further quieted by the ability of the Government to make better arrangements with the Entente Powers and America for shipping and food supplies. While Germany is still a blockaded country and there is not yet any free trade with Holland under the British blockade rules, there has been a relaxation of the most stringent rules and it has been possible for the Dutch authorities to increase food allowances in the most pressing cases.

Beside the difficult questions for Holland involved in the presence of the Kaiser on her soil, there is another matter between Holland and the Allies. That is the question of the retreat of some 68,000 men of the German Army across that part of Holland included in the Province of Limburg, forming a salient into Belgian territory. On Nov. 12 German troops from the northeastern part of Belgium presented themselves at the Dutch frontier and asked permission to pass through the narrow neck of Dutch territory into Germany. The Dutch Cabinet took up the matter on the next day and decided to grant the right of passage through Dutch territory after the Germans had laid down their arms in Holland. It was at first reported that the allied Governments had agreed to this departure from the strict letter of the law of nations. From Paris, however, the semi-official Havas Agency issued a statement saying that the allied representatives had only been informed of the decision of the Holland Government after the Germans had entered the country, and that they had expressed no opinion on the subject.

THE SCANDINAVIAN LEAGUE

The three Scandinavian countries which have acted together throughout the war have decided to continue their agreement through the Peace Conference and will act together during the

discussions of a League of Nations, according to the Official Journal of Copenhagen, which published the following statement on Dec. 3:

According to decisions at meetings of the Scandinavian Cabinet Ministers, the Governments of the three northern countries have appointed committees to prepare material for the purpose of looking after the common interests of neutral States at the Peace Conference and after the conclusion of peace. These committees have held a series of meetings in Copenhagen and agreed on a detailed proposal with a view to the possible organization of a League of Nations. This proposal embraces especially the general obligation to subject disputes between States to arbitration, the establishment of an International Council, a permanent International Court of Justice, international institutions of investigation and arbitration, and the permanent organization of peace conferences or conferences on international law at The Hague.

The question of the position of the northern States to suggest international restriction of armaments and international enforcement of such organization has been temporarily discussed by committees, and will be further considered during the continued co-operation between the three countries. In respect to this, a Danish committee has been appointed, headed by the Minister of Defense, Dr. P. Munch, and a Swedish committee headed by Hjalmar Branting, while no new member has yet been appointed for Norway.

DENMARK

With the complete defeat of Germany a very interesting and important question was raised for the little kingdom of Denmark, and the discussion of this question is filling Danish newspapers to the exclusion of most other phases of the peace settlement. It is the sudden revival of the half-century-old Schleswig-Holstein question, now raised in the belief that it will find a just settlement. But in half a century it has ceased to be a dispute over two duchies. The present Government of Denmark makes no claim to all this once bitterly fought over territory, but on the other hand, would not be willing to assume responsibility for it. The position of Denmark is that the people of Northern Schleswig should now have an opportunity to express their political wishes, whether for joining Denmark or taking their chances with a

newly organized Germany. As the district in question is overwhelmingly Danish, there is no doubt as to the result of a vote.

The Schleswig-Holstein matter was brought up prominently by the letter of President Wilson in response to an appeal addressed to him by American citizens and residents from Schleswig and Denmark. The President in his reply, addressed to a representative of the Danes, said:

The White House,
Washington, Nov. 12, 1918.

My dear Mr. Bodholdt: In addressing myself to you I wish to include not only Carl Plow of Petaluma, Cal., and Jens Jensen of Chicago, who with you have been the chief spokesmen of Slesvig in this country, but all the Slesvigers who have signed the petition directed to me, as well as the still greater number of Americans of Danish race who have indorsed that petition.

The statement you have given me, signed by former residents of Slesvig and indorsed by a still greater number of Danes, all now American citizens, voices anew an unforbidden injustice. I can but assure you that your appeal to America's sympathy and passion for justice will not go unheard, for it founds itself wisely upon the rights of men to rule themselves and to choose the manner in which that self-rule shall be exercised. I do not doubt that your voice and that of your former countrymen will be heard and heeded wherever the thought of the nations turns to the righting of old wrongs kept fresh by the lengthened oppression of the intervening years.

It is for the whole world which has borne the burdens of war to share in the adjustments of peace. Not America alone but all the peoples now quickened to a newer sense of the values of justice must join in the relief of a grievance whose continuance would traverse the principles for which more than a score of nations are now fighting.

Please accept on behalf of the Slesvigers in this country my thanks for the faith of which their petition is an evidence and on behalf of your race in the old country my earnest wish for the hastening of the day when right and justice shall prevail to deliver them from oppression. Cordially and sincerely yours,

WOODROW WILSON.

The stand of the present Danish Government on this question is given by an attaché of the legation in Washington, who wrote to *THE NEW YORK TIMES*, under date of Nov. 26, as follows:

The petition to the President and his

answer are based on the same ideal foundation: the right of peoples to determine their own allegiance. And this means that not Schleswig-Holstein but only the northern part of Schleswig will be returned to Denmark. Holstein is more German than Prussia itself and even the southern part of Schleswig Germanized to such an extent that only by force could it be brought back under Danish rule.

North Schleswig, however, or South Jutland, as the Danes call it, is Danish in language, Danish in culture, Danish in sympathies, and has through more than fifty years unceasingly fought for its Danish nationality and its Danish mother tongue. But even so, neither the Danes nor the Schleswigers themselves would like to see North Schleswig returned to Denmark without a vote being taken to show Germany and all the world that Denmark only gets back what is hers by every moral right. * * *

It cannot be emphasized strongly enough that Denmark wishes for a solution along purely national lines, not only because this is in accord with its own real feelings and best interests, but because it conforms with the often expressed principles of the Allies and America, that the new national settlements must be just and final. The Danish Nation wants returned to Denmark the Danish parts of Schleswig in such a way as not to give cause for future misunderstandings. This stand is in fact only a continuation of Denmark's neutral policy, maintained during the war with equal loyalty to both sides.

NORWAY

Sentiment in Norway has been very strongly in favor of the Allies, and a lesser degree of industrialism in that country has furnished a less favorable soil for socialism than in Sweden, for instance; the revolution in Germany and the signing of the armistice, therefore, did not bring any strong reaction. Norway now looks to payment for her heavy loss of ships through the German submarine operations and the surrender of the raiders in British and French harbors.

While sentiment was almost solidly for the Allies in Norway, the main political question has been the redistribution of election districts, the Social Democrats, whose strength is in the towns, playing off against the Left or Agrarian Party. Price-fixing and armament were the issues of the Fall election, the Socialists

standing out for much of the former and little of the latter.

The shipping account with the United States has been taken up in Norway since the ending of hostilities. It was announced from Washington on April 22, 1918, that the Shipping Board had chartered 400,000 tons of Norwegian sailing ships for trade outside the submarine zone. Now the Norwegian press is calling for an adjustment of the payment for the use of these vessels, which has been long held up.

SWEDEN

In Sweden there was an instantaneous echo of the German revolution in demands put forward by the Independent Socialist Party for the removal of the monarchy and the establishment of a republic. A manifesto calling for the organizing everywhere of Soldiers' and Workmen's Councils on the Russian model was published. Stockholm for a few days was a centre of many flying rumors. This agitation quickly subsided with the announcement that the Government was to carry through further democratic reforms. The proposed reforms include giving the franchise to both sexes on equal terms, and placing the control of foreign affairs as well as the right to declare war and make peace in the hands of the representative assembly.

LUXEMBURG

To no neutral country did the signing of the armistice mean more than to the little Grand Duchy of Luxemburg. Occupied by the German troops in the very first days of the war, it was suddenly freed of the invader. Ten days after the signing of the armistice, General Pershing entered Luxemburg, the capital, and, standing at the side of the young Grand Duchess Marie Adelaide on the balcony of her palace, reviewed a regiment of American troops.

The military events in the Grand Duchy belong rather to the story of the American Army of Occupation, but here it may be noted that sharp political differences manifested themselves as soon as the country was free of the German Army. Before the entry of the Amer-

ican Army crowds marched through the streets chanting "Abdicate! Abdicate!" before the palace. There is a party favoring the annexation of the Duchy to France, another to Belgium, and another for the preservation of its independence. During the occupation of the American troops no forced political change is looked for.

The Grand Duchess sent an appeal to President Wilson, announced on Nov. 26, to defend the rights of Luxemburg as an independent State in the Peace Conference. The message was referred to the Supreme War Council at Versailles.

The Luxemburg Chamber in the meantime had adopted a motion demanding a referendum to decide the form of the Government. A motion in the Chamber supported by Liberals and Socialists demanding the abdication of the Grand Duchess was rejected.

SWITZERLAND

A curious effect of the ending of the war was the attempt of Bolshevik representatives in Switzerland to bring about a revolution after a general strike. THE NEW YORK TIMES correspondent at Berne, writing on Nov. 20, after the strike had been settled, said it was established that Bolshevik agents had planned to bring about a bloody revolution in Switzerland with the hope of its spreading to Italy and France. The Bolsheviks worked through Germans, and succeeded in bringing about a three-day tieup of public utilities. The Swiss Government immediately sent the First Division, composed of French Swiss, to the German Swiss cities of Berne, Zurich and Basle, where they succeeded perfectly in keeping order. The Russian Bolshevik agents were immediately arrested, and with the legation staffs were sent across the border of the country. The Swiss Government had previously, on Nov. 9, announced its intention of breaking off all relations with the Soviet Government at Moscow because of its persistent attempts to spread revolutionary propaganda through Switzerland and the neighboring countries.

The greatest benefit to Switzerland of the signing of the armistice has been the opportunity to demobilize its army,

which for four years has been a heavy strain upon the national exchequer. By the end of October the Government had reduced the frontier guards to about eight battalions, which were detailed to guard against smuggling and to carry out the economic agreements binding Switzerland not to transmit material to Germany.

General Ulrich Wille, who has been in chief command of the Swiss forces during the war, has asked to be relieved of his duties since the signing of the armistice.

SPAIN

The collapse of the Central Powers had a profound effect in Spain. This was due to the fact that, from the beginning, Spain had been the object of most serious German efforts at propaganda making, and that certain circles had shown themselves amenable to the German instruction. The political course of the country had constantly been guided by the belief that the war would end in a stalemate, with a compromise peace, or a not impossible German victory.

Toward the end the Spanish Government had taken a stronger tone with Berlin over the long-continued submarine outrages against Spanish ships, and had announced the intention of compensating itself with German interned ships for losses suffered at sea. An agreement was reached with Germany on this basis. Still there was no shaping of a course on a clear understanding of impending allied victory. So the news of the signing of the armistice was received with conflicting feelings. The Liberal press gave evidence of undivided satisfaction, and there was a new stirring of interest in a league of nations, which had not previously found great favor in the Spanish press. Important newspapers now urge the high importance of Spain's aligning herself with that movement.

King Alfonso sent to President Poincaré of France this message on the signing of the armistice:

At the moment of the signing of the armistice I must, my dear President, con-

gratulate you with all my heart on having reached the end of this glorious epic of the French Army and Nation, which have shown us all what bravery and patriotism mean.

There have been rapid shifts of Cabinet in Madrid. The Government headed by Count Romanones lasted until Nov. 17, and was succeeded by one formed by the Marquis de Alhucemas, in which Romanones remained as Foreign Minister. This Cabinet lasted until Dec. 3, when Romanones was again called upon to form a government.

The Reformist Party has begun holding meetings in behalf of sweeping reforms. Among the measures demanded by the party are the following:

Any bill rejected by the Crown to become a law without further reference to the Crown if Parliament reapproves the measure; the royal prerogatives to be exercised under responsibility to the Ministers; the entire Senate to be chosen by the electors; every province which demands autonomy and is in a position to fulfill the necessary conditions shall receive it; military service to be universal and obligatory, with any exempted person paying during the term of service required a tax proportionate to his income; State schools and technical education to be largely increased.

Another source of political unrest in Spain is the revival of the movement for an autonomous Catalonia. Señor Cambe, leader of the Catalan autonomists, on Dec. 10 announced that, if his bill was not accepted, Catalan deputies would have to be withdrawn. A few days later these deputies withdrew in a body. Protests were made in Madrid against the Separatist movement, and a form of boycott of the province was said to have been agreed upon by Madrid concerns.

A final chapter in its relations with the old Germany was written by the Spanish Government in the withdrawal of its Ambassador at Berlin, which was announced on Dec. 9. The Spanish Government had also withdrawn its last diplomatic representative from Russia. Spain had never recognized the Soviet Government, but had retained her diplomatic corps in Russia.

Russia's Struggle Against Chaos

Collapse of Germany Weakens the Hold of Bolshevism on the Paralyzed Nation

[PERIOD ENDED DEC. 15, 1918]

AFTER the anniversary of the Bolshevik revolution in the middle of November bloody clashes took place on the Archangel front. For several days the Soviet gunboats shelled the Russo-allied posts on the Dvina River and made infantry attacks against them. The Bolsheviks were repulsed with heavy losses. The attack had been intended to drive the foreign troops up the Dvina. American troops were holding the middle sector of this front. Toward the end of November the Soviet forces withdrew their gunboats from the Dvina for fear of being frozen in, and mounted big guns along the river.

Later dispatches reported an advance by a Russian-American force up the Pinega River. Marching over frozen swamps and snow-covered roads, it captured the town of Shetagorskoie, 120 miles from Pinega. According to a Helsingfors report, dated Nov. 28, Pskov and Dunaburg were captured and Narva bombarded by the Soviet troops.

Throughout the month under record the Czechs in Russia were on the defensive. In a Cheliabinsk dispatch of Nov. 25, General Syrov, the Czechoslovak commander, was quoted as saying that the Bolsheviks had broken through on the point of the Volga front near Ufa and Birsk, but that the Czechs expected to hold them. Dispatches from Siberia indicated that the Czechs were surrounded by enemies and were in a very dangerous position. At the Czech headquarters at Ekaterinburg the Soviet Army was estimated at 227,000, and it was stated that twenty-three new divisions were called for the Spring. German Generals were in command of the Soviet armies, in spite of Germany's agreement to withdraw her troops from Russia. General Blücher was Chief of the Bolshevik General Staff and General Eberhardt commander on the Samara front.

The position of the Czech forces in Russia was aggravated by the failure of the Allies to formulate a definite policy with regard to that country. After the German armistice the Czech soldiers made it clear that it was their desire to return to their homeland. Professor Masaryk, President of Czechoslovakia, stated on Nov. 30 that he wished the Czech Army to return home, but that the matter depended upon the decision of the Allies. But the Allies were busy with preparations for the Peace Conference and delayed definite action.

ADMIRAL KOLCHAK'S COUP

The month's outstanding event in the political history of non-Bolshevik Russia was the coup d'état which resulted in the establishment of Admiral Kolchak's dictatorship at Omsk. In the middle of November it seemed that the whole of non-Soviet Russia was solidly behind the All-Russian Provisional Government at Omsk, and that the political situation held no danger. On Nov. 12 the Amur Province, the only section of Siberia which had failed to recognize the Omsk Government, pledged itself to support it. At the same time the Allies were showing official interest in this Government, and Nikolai Avksentiev, its President, pleaded for allied recognition to "strengthen the new Government in the eyes of the masses" and discourage the reactionary elements.

On Nov. 18 the Directorate of Five, which headed the Omsk Government, was dissolved, and Admiral Kolchak, Minister of War and Marine, was declared dictator. General Boldirev, commander of the army of the All-Russian Government, thus described the Omsk events: "The counter-revolutionary group seized President Avksentiev, Zen-zinov, Argunov, and Gotovsky and took them to an unknown place. Then the

"Council of Ministers, headed by Premier Vologodsky, declared that it assumed all power and transferred it to Admiral Kolchak." According to General Horvath, the coup was a counter-measure against the activities of the radical wing in the Omsk Government.

The day after the coup d'état a number of members of the All-Russian Constituent Assembly were arrested at Ekaterinburg, Victor Tchernov, Minister of Agriculture under Kerensky among them. He was arrested by the Czechoslovak General Gaida on the charge of having issued a proclamation at Omsk calling on the people to revolt. The Cossack officers who had arrested the members of the Omsk Directorate were tried and acquitted.

THE DICTATOR DEFIED

A group of members of the Constituent Assembly issued a proclamation Nov. 22 declaring that "The departments adhering to democratic principles assume all power to enter into negotiations with the Czechoslovak Council and the military commanders," and urging the people to maintain order. On Nov. 26 the Omsk Government informed the allied representatives that it would not support Kolchak's dictatorship. General Semenov and General Boldirev also defied Admiral Kolchak. General Semenov cut the wires between Omsk and Vladivostok, asserted his jurisdiction over the Amur, Ussuri, and Transbaikalian region, and established his headquarters at Chita. Thereupon he issued an ultimatum to the Admiral demanding that he should give up his dictatorship. In reply, Admiral Kolchak deposed Semenov from the command of the Fifth Army, named Colonel Valkov as successor, and ordered him to arrest the rebel General.

The Czechoslovak Council in Russia defined its attitude toward the crisis at Omsk in a statement which pointed out that the Czechoslovaks were fighting "for the ideals of democracy and for lawfulness," and declared that "violent changes in Government could no longer continue." "The Czechoslovak National Council in Russia hopes," the statement concluded, "that the crisis in the Government caused by the arrest of

"members of the All-Russian Provisional Government will be adjusted lawfully. "We regard the crisis as not yet ended." The Allies failed to define their attitude toward this crisis, but pursued a policy of waiting.

FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Shortly after the establishment of Kolchak's dictatorship, the Omsk Government issued the following statement:

The Government which is headed by Admiral Kolchak, as its supreme chief, bearing in mind that Russia has always sacredly fulfilled all its liabilities toward its own subjects as well as to other nations to which it was bound by treaties, has deemed it necessary to state in its declaration of Nov. 21 that it will not fail, as soon as Russia is reunited, to execute all liabilities of the State Treasury, i. e., payments of interests and amortization on internal and external State loans, payments on contracts and salaries of employees, pensions and all other payments arising from law, contract or other legal foundations.

The economic situation in Siberia continued to be one of utter destitution. The cities were flooded with refugees, and there was an extreme shortage of manufactured products, especially drugs and other medical supplies. The various American organizations were reported to lack co-ordination.

AN APPEAL FOR HELP

On Nov. 28, Catherine Breshkovskaya, known to the world as "the grandmother of the Russian revolution," arrived in Vladivostok on her way to the United States. After the Bolshevik revolution she had spent eight months in hiding. Then she made her way to Ufa and across Siberia. While at Omsk she addressed an appeal to America, in which she said:

With your assistance we can reconstruct the Russian State and save it from the destructive forces of the German agents and their allies, the Bolsheviks. Thanks to the Allies' heroic efforts and to the noble and disinterested sacrifices of your country, we shall rid ourselves of that plague—the Bolsheviks—which would shatter the hopes of every champion of world liberty and progress.

Russia still is full of enemy bands and agents who are continuing their treacherous work. Our peasantry and workmen are discouraged by the many falsehoods of these agents, who work to our ruin.

Our peasantry and workmen, while abashed and disheartened, still are intoxicated by misleading promises. We want material supplies and intellectual forces to set a good example to our people. If left without your aid, all the forces of the dark centuries of monarchism will upset our work. These dark forces already commence to assert themselves, but we know that your army will never help monarchists.

We know that from you will come an answer to our plea and that the instructors you will send us will teach our young generation to work. You will co-operate with us for the welfare not of Russia alone but for that of the whole world.

Alexander Kerensky, the former Russian Premier, said to an interviewer on Dec. 11: "I implore America, as a true friend of paralyzed Russia, to see that she is not exploited by her former allies."

CONTINUED TERRORISM

According to a Stockholm report of Nov. 22, 500 former officers were shot by the Bolshevik Government at Petrograd within the month. Advices that reached Washington on Dec. 12 were to the effect that the political terror continued in Soviet Russia, many priests and monks being sentenced to death by the revolutionary tribunals. At Katernito, a small town in the Government of Viatka, ten persons were executed, and at Spassk twenty-five. Generals Ruzski and Radko-Dimitriev of the Russian Army were shot by order of a local Soviet. M. Ruschlov, former Minister of State, was also reported shot, and General Seyn, former Governor General of Finland, either shot or drowned at Kronstadt.

Fugitives from Russia described Petrograd as a "city of horrors," and conditions there as unendurable. According to Swedish press reports, hunger and terrorism had reduced the population of the northern capital to half of its former size. At the close of 1917 the population of Petrograd was 2,400,000; in June, 1918, it was only 1,400,000. The commune authorities were said to be issuing food to none but partisans of the Soviet régime.

The Labor Commissariat of Moscow passed regulations fixing the minimum wage of reporters and editors in the Moscow district at 350 rubles and the maximum at 1,200. The rate at which

space writers were paid was also fixed, and a commission consisting of writers' and publishers' representatives was formed to see that the regulations were carried out.

GIRLS AS STATE PROPERTY

An issue of the *Izvestia*, the official Bolshevik organ, contained the following curious document, issued by the Soviet of the City of Vladimir:

Every girl who has reached her eighteenth year is guaranteed by the local Commissary of Surveillance the full inviolability of her person. Any offender against an eighteen-year-old girl by using insulting language or attempting to ravish her is subject to the full rigors of the Revolutionary Tribunal.

Any one who has ravished a girl who has not reached her eighteenth year is considered a State criminal and is liable to a sentence of twenty years' hard labor unless he marries the injured one. The injured, dishonored girl is given the right not to marry the ravisher if she does not so desire.

A girl having reached her eighteenth year is to be announced as the property of the State. Any girl having reached her eighteenth year and not having married is obliged, subject to the most severe penalty, to register at the Bureau of Free Love in the Commissariat of Surveillance. Having registered at the Bureau of Free Love, she has the right to choose from among men between the ages of nineteen and fifty a cohabitant husband.

Remarks: (1) The consent of the men in the said choice is unnecessary: (2) the man on whom such a choice falls has no right to make any protest whatsoever against the infringement.

The right to choose from a number of girls who have reached their eighteenth year is given also to men. The opportunity to choose a husband or a wife is to be presented once a month. The Bureau of Free Love is autonomous.

Men between the ages of nineteen and fifty have the right to choose from among the registered women, even without the consent of the latter, in the interests of the State. Children who are the issue of these unions are to become the property of the State.

The decree states that it is based on the example of similar regulations issued at Luga, Kolpino, &c. A "Project of Provisional Rights in Connection with the Socialization of Women in the City of Khvolinsk and Vicinity" was pub-

lished in the Soviet newspaper of that locality.

Sweden recalled her diplomatic and Consular representatives in Russia, as reported Dec. 8, for the reason that the Soviet envoy in Sweden had transmitted Bolshevik literature from Russia. The Swedish Government made it clear that they expected the Russian Ambassador and the other members of the Soviet Legation to leave Sweden. Several days previously the Soviet authorities had imprisoned Assad Khan, the Persian Minister to Russia. This step was apparently an act of retaliation for the arrest of the Soviet representatives in Turkestan by the British.

On Nov. 20 the Ukrainian Government headed by Hetman Skoropadski was reported overthrown and Kiev captured by Cossacks under the command of General Denikine. The Ukrainian National Assembly fled and a provisional Government was set up.

GERMAN HOLD RELAXED

On Nov. 23 a courier from General Denikine's army arrived at Saloniki, thus restoring direct communication between the Cossacks and the allied armies, which had been interrupted a year before. Three days later the British cruiser *Agamemnon*, accompanied by French and British torpedo boats, arrived at Odessa. French marines entered Odessa, and the fortress and city of Sebastopol were cleared of German soldiery by Dec. 13. On that day London received an official German statement to the effect that the German forces were leaving Odessa. British and Russian forces had previously occupied Baku on the western coast of the Caspian Sea.

Lithuania proclaimed itself an independent republic. The ceremony took place on No. 30 at Riga in the presence of the National Council. Karl Ullman is President of the Republic of Lithuania.

The Germans began the evacuation of the Baltic provinces in November, and the Soviet troops were reported to have crossed the Narva River and entered Esthonia between the Gulf of Finland and Lake Peipus. The Esthonians offered

resistance, and appealed for allied intervention to assist them against the invaders. Early in December British warships reached Libau and entered Reval at the request of Esthonia.

On Dec. 13 General Mannerheim was elected Premier of Finland to succeed Premier Svinhufvad, who had resigned.

AFFAIRS IN POLAND

In the middle of November Polish troops were holding Warsaw and directing the demobilization of the German Army. At the same time Polish officers took possession of Posen. A week later a great part of the Province of Posen was in Polish hands. On Nov. 22 Lemberg was won from the Ruthenians by the Poles after many days of desultory fighting, which cost more than a thousand lives. During the fighting a bloody anti-Jewish riot broke out. Pogroms also occurred in other Galician cities and in Warsaw. The Polish Government ordered an inquiry and promised compensation for all damages.

General Pilsudski formed the Cabinet of the new Polish Government. It is composed of Socialists and members of the Peasants' Party, with General Pilsudski as Minister of War, and Andreas Woraczewski, a moderate Socialist and former member of the Austrian lower house, as Premier. The Government decreed an eight-hour day and the abolition of titles, but left all other reforms to the Constituent Assembly, which was to meet in January, 1919. The first act of Pilsudski's Government was to arrest the members of a number of secret Bolshevik organizations.

Poland severed relations with Germany, as announced in a Warsaw dispatch of Dec. 16, and ordered all Germans out of the Polish Republic because of intrigues. Count Kessler, the German Minister, with his entire staff, was ordered to leave the country, and the Pilsudski Government proceeded to mobilize an army for the enforcement of the order. At the same time there were indications of a movement at Posen for the union of German Poland with the Polish Republic.

[OFFICIAL]

German Brutality to Prisoners

Report of the Younger Committee on the Ill-Treatment of British Captives

There was issued in London on Oct. 14, 1918, an official report dated Aug. 29, "On the Treatment by the Germans of Prisoners of War Taken During the Spring Offensive of 1918," the work of a committee headed by Justice Robert Younger. It showed that the abuses revealed in an earlier report continued to be practiced behind the German lines. Another report by the Younger Commission issued in November disclosed similar cruelties to British prisoners in the coal and salt mines of Germany. The text of the main Younger report is as follows:

THE committee has collected the statements made to its examiners by upward of seventy of our men who, taken prisoner during the German Spring offensives on the western front, have since succeeded in making good their escape.

The escapes accomplished by the men whose evidence is here reviewed were exploits which, in most instances, called for a display of quite remarkable courage and resource on the part of those concerned. Each man took his life in his hand. That risk, however, did not deter him from making his bid for freedom.

It is probably correct to say that the number of prisoners captured as an immediate result of the offensive begun on March 21 last exceeded every expectation of the enemy, as it overwhelmed every provision, if indeed any at all was made, for their reception. This fact may afford some explanation of the total failure on the part of the Germans during, in some cases, more than forty-eight hours after capture to provide any food at all for the prisoners they took; it furnishes, however, neither explanation nor excuse for the utter inadequacy of the sustenance thereafter provided for the men; for the unauthorized nature of the work many of them were set to do; for the proximity to the battlefront of the places where they were called upon to do it; for the absence in many of the cages—they were little better—of any shelter, warmth, or sanitary conveniences of any kind; for the cruelty of some of the guards, or the brutality—for it was

nothing less—of one or two of the doctors. Yet these things were the common lot of many of the men over the whole period covered by this report.

STARVING PRISONERS

At times the treatment to which the prisoners were being subjected seemed to some German officers, more sensitive than the rest, to require an explanation. The absence of sufficient food was due to the blockade; this was the excuse put forward by one. By another it was explained as being a reprisal for similar treatment of German prisoners at our hands.

The committee does not stop to deal at length with these pretexts. Let there be set against them the recorded statement of a German General at Villers on April 17, that he knew their men were being well treated in England. If any explanation is to be given of the unjustifiable treatment to which these prisoners have been required to submit, it must be looked for, the committee feels, elsewhere. Possibly it may be found in the resolve underlying a remark made in broken English by a German officer on March 22 at Marchiennes: "We will break your brave English hearts tomorrow."

Of the statements before the committee quite a large number are those of men who were captured in the first or very early days of the offensive. These men were in nearly every instance, as has already been indicated, left without food for periods varying from twenty-four hours to forty-eight hours, during

the greater part of which they were kept constantly on the march. One or two instances may be given. A man captured at Lagnicourt at 9 A. M., March 21, was marched with a band of prisoners, including a number of wounded, to Villers, arriving there at 3 in the afternoon. Thence they were taken across country to a cage "which seemed miles from anywhere," and which was reached at 9 P. M. There they spent the night in a barbed-wire inclosure, sleeping in the open without food or drink other than water from a small stream flowing near the cage. Next morning at 10 o'clock, still without food, the men were marched to Marchiennes, where they arrived at 6 P. M. No food on the journey—only some coffee. At Marchiennes they were given a small piece of bread and a little more coffee; nothing more. The men were famished.

GERMANS HAD PLENTY

Another man captured at St. Quentin about 1 o'clock in the afternoon of March 21 was, with others, marched by stages to Origny, reaching there on the 24th about the same hour. "During the march," he says, "we received no food at all, very little water, and camped all night in the open." Another captured at Ecoust on the 21st says:

On the 22d I got nothing to eat. The Germans gave us nothing. They had plenty of food themselves, because they had captured the whole of the battalion rations for the 21st. We asked for food and were told we should get some further down the line. On the evening of the 23d about forty of us were sent to Rumau-court, carrying about twenty wounded to a hospital, and here I had a cup of coffee substitute, which was very nasty, and two slices of bread and jam. Next morning the forty of us were marched to Villers-lez-Cagnicourt. We were given nothing to eat before starting, and we reached the cage about noon. We got nothing to eat till 4 P. M.

Another witness taken prisoner at Lagnicourt on the 21st of March thus describes his journey from Villers to Denain, which he reached on the 24th:

At about 11:30 A. M. on the 21st we started to march off to Villers, where we arrived the same day after two hours' march. * * * At Villers we were put in a wire compound in the open. I think by the time we got there there were about

300 British prisoners, as we kept picking them up on the way. A good many were wounded—walking cases. We remained in the cage till the evening, and were given nothing whatever to eat or drink. About 5 P. M. we were fallen in—wounded as well. These latter got no dressing or any attention to their wounds, and were forced to come along with us. Our escort consisted of mounted Uhlans. We would halt anywhere by the side of the road at night, and march all through the day. We got no food whatever during the whole time. The French peasants tried to give us food, but the escort would not allow them. The escort had food themselves. They were very rough to us, keeping us in formation of fours and not allowing us to fall out to get water when we came to it. The wounded suffered very much, and we did our best to help them along. We arrived at Denain about 2 P. M. on the 24th of March.

UNDER BRITISH FIRE

These instances are typical. It seems unnecessary to multiply them. They disclose an initial treatment which was a fitting prelude to the semi-starvation which succeeded it in the improvised camps or cages in which many thousands of the men taken during these offensives have been subsequently confined.

The evidence of that treatment even now before the committee is voluminous. It is impossible to deal with it here in full detail. Its outstanding features are the utter disregard by the German command of its obligations with reference to prisoners, whether entered into before the war or since; the abuse of the Red Cross flag; the compulsory employment of prisoners, on pain, at times, of death, in operations directly concerned with the then German offensive; the setting of their imprisonment and place of work within range of the prisoners' own guns; their consistent semi-starvation; their insanitary surroundings; the absence of every facility for keeping themselves clean; the continued refusal of either clothing or warmth to men enfeebled by want of food and weakened by excessive toil and the denial of hospital treatment to those prostrated by disease.

Villers, near Arras, is a cage or camp of which several witnesses speak. Some of the men there were billeted in a church without a roof; others in a cage, with, at first, no buildings of any kind,

so that the men had to lie in the open. After a fortnight two huts and a marquee were erected by German labor. One of the witnesses, who was at Villers from the 11th to the 23d of April, thus describes his experiences during that period:

Our work consisted of road-making, building light railways, carrying ammunition from one dump to another. The day's work was as follows: Reveille at 3 A. M., we were lined up, and as we passed the guard we were each given a drink of coffee, but no food. We were then formed up in companies of 100 each. We were then sent away to various places to work. We would start work about 8 A. M. Sometimes there would be a good distance to walk. We were given a spell from 12 to 1; then worked on to 5 P. M. We worked seven days a week. We were given no food at all until about 7 P. M. We had nothing to eat or drink from the time we received our coffee about 4 A. M. till we received our tea at 7 P. M. We were not allowed to get water on the march or at work. For tea we received some soup, made of a kind of dried fish and lentils, and one loaf to three men, but no coffee. The sanitary arrangements consisted of a hole in the ground, to which no attention was paid. The work was very hard and continuous. We dared not rest a moment. If we did, the sentries would strike us with the butt-end of their rifles. At Villers there was an order put up, printed in English, to the effect that no one was to make a noise at night, that no one was allowed firearms or a knife, that any one trying to escape would be shot without challenge, that all sentries had free use of their rifles.

The prisoners were very weak and exhausted. During the spell between 12 and 1 they used to wander round, collecting nettles, which they brought to the camp at night to eat. We were given no opportunity for washing. There was a pump at the cookhouse, but the pump handle was removed to prevent us using it. The guards would give us no water. There was no heating or warming apparatus given us, and there was no means of drying our clothes. If we got wet we had to remain wet. We never received any parcels at all. We were given no clothes by the Germans.

ABUSES OF RED CROSS

Another of the witnesses, when at Villers, was employed in carrying shells to different German batteries about twelve kilometers behind the front line.

"We were under fire," he says, "from our big guns. Near our camp at Villers,"

he adds, "there was a large dump of ammunition. It was covered with tarpaulin, and there were two or three Red Cross flags put over it. Our artillery found it and blew it up. I saw it happen. Some Germans were killed. The dump was only about fifty yards from the camp, and some of our shells at the same time dropped in the camp. I was sick that day and was in the camp. One of our shells killed four of our men and wounded one."

Another witness, who was at Villers from April 2 to 18, says: "The men were so weak from want of food they were fainting every day."

Other witnesses speak of an epidemic of dysentery at this camp at the end of March, and it may here be noted that dysentery was rife in all the camps. It was owing, as one witness says, to the bad food. The first day it broke out at Villers eighty men were affected. An average of forty a day went sick with the same complaint.

"The sick parade one day amounted to 400 men. They were marched off to Bullecourt and made to lay light railways. Most of them went sick with bad feet and dysentery; they were all in a weak condition, but still made to work. We were all sleeping in the open air.

* * * The camp was in a very insanitary condition. * * * We had no beds or blankets or straw. There were 1,115 altogether in this cage. * * * We R. A. M. C. men volunteered to take over the sanitary arrangements of the camp, but this was refused."

FORCED LABOR

At Ecoust, about nine kilometers from Villers, there was another cage, about which the witnesses say a great deal. One of them, with experience of both places, gives the following account, the essential particulars of which are reiterated by other witnesses:

This was a cage, [he says,] similar to Villers, only the accommodation was worse, and also the sanitary arrangements. The guards also were more rough and brutal, and the place was constantly under shellfire from our guns, and also from our airplanes, which used to fly round to bomb the dumps and light railways round the camp. The food and work were the same, but we were closer to our

lines, and were under shellfire the whole time. The guards were Landsturm, old men too old for the trenches, or younger too young. * * * Our own N. C. O.'s had to work just the same as privates; there was no distinction made between warrant officers, N. C. O.'s and privates; all had to work alike.

On April 13, 1918, one of our big guns was shelling near the camp, and some of our men were working in a store just outside the camp and a shell burst and killed a Corporal of the West Yorks and wounded three others of our men—later in the day another shell burst and wounded one of the German guards. I think he will die.

While at Ecoust I noticed that there were some big marquees all flying the Red Cross flag, and a huge Red Cross marked on the ground for airplanes to see. In these marquees were stored all kinds of military stores and ammunition.

The state of our poor men was getting most pitiable owing to want of sleep, starvation, and ill-treatment, being forced to work whether sick or well, and the vermin was awful. We never had a change of wash or change of clothes the whole time I was a prisoner.

The witness was captured on March 21. He escaped on April 13. Appropriate attention, as is shown by the deposition of another witness, has since been given by our airmen to the marquees of which he spoke.

Salomé was a cage in which, early in April, there were confined 1,500 British and between 700 and 800 Portuguese. Later the British were billeted in an old church and the Portuguese were sent to Lille. The men were apparently interchanged freely between this camp and a neighboring one at Provin. The food at Salomé is accordingly usually described in the terms of that supplied at Provin. Here is a description of it by an intelligent and reliable witness:

The first thing in the morning we got a kind of oatmeal, for dinner a kind of stew of horseflesh or goat's meat; the latter was quite uneatable. Sometimes instead we got some very black kind of fish full of ammonia and salt, and uneatable. Often we got no tea; when we did we got a small piece of bologna sausage about the size of half a crown and a quarter inch thick, and sometimes, though rarely, a small teaspoonful of a kind of apple jelly.

This is what the same witness says of Salomé:

On April 20 we were all marched back

(from Provin) to Salomé. We were billeted in an old church with guards at the front and rear. The place was fearfully crowded, and we had only straw to lie on, which got filthy and verminous; but the crowd was such that many of us were unable to sit or lie down; there were about 1,300 to 1,500 of us in the church—all British—a few Sergeants and Corporals among them. The Sergeants were not made to work, but the Corporals were. The food was much the same quality as at Provin, but less of it. It was very hard to live on it, and we got into a very weak and emaciated condition. Of course, we received no parcels, and were not allowed to write any letters. * * * Working parties were told off at different times, both day and night. Sometimes they would be turned out at 2 and 3 in the morning, and they as a rule were made to carry ammunition up to the front line and on to the dumps. * * * Salomé was continually being bombed, and shells constantly fell all about; on one occasion our cookhouse was destroyed, but no one killed. I never actually saw any one killed by our shells, but I was told of about fourteen British being wounded and several killed out of a working party one day. This I was told by several of the men who had been on the working party at the time. They were going up to the line either collecting dead or carrying ammunition. I personally was employed several times on the ration dump, carrying rations and unloading at the railhead, also working on the roads behind the line. I got as near the line as four kilometers, and was often under fire.

Other witnesses speak of the terrible condition of some Italian prisoners they saw at Salomé.

We used [says one] to see Italian prisoners going up the line to work. They were in a very bad condition, some of them walking skeletons. Their clothing was in a shocking condition. They were wearing broken clogs and old rags for stockings. We heard they were sent to work on the western front as a punishment.

This witness proceeds:

We were under shellfire the whole time we were behind the German lines. The German guards "get the wind up" whenever there is any shelling, and take what cover they can and take no notice of the prisoners.

BRUTAL GUARDS

At Prowy, about twenty kilometers behind Cambrai, where as many as 1,500 were confined in a disused sugar refinery, the men suffered terribly from cold and want of food. One of the witnesses, now among the escaped himself,

fainted from starvation. "The food consisted of one-quarter loaf of bread and coffee and vegetables given very irregularly, and very little of it." Another witness says:

We slept on cement floors, no blankets, no straw, and fires were not allowed. Our bread ration sometimes failed for thirty-six hours. Lots of men fell sick and fainted from exhaustion. There was a lot of dysentery, and the only medicine we got was nettle leaves boiled in water. One man of the R. M. L. I. died here from exhaustion. * * * The guards were very offensive, and used their rifle butts on us.

On the 17th of April 200 of us were marched to the Canal du Nord, about 10 kilometers this side of Cambrai; we were not under shellfire there. There were dugouts on the canal banks to sleep in, and we worked at laying railways, loading wagons, &c. There were already 200 men there before we arrived; they were in a shocking condition. * * * ["The poor fellows coming in from work," another witness says, "could only just toddle along."] At the canal we worked from 6 A. M. to 6 P. M. on the same poor ration as in other camps. The guards were very brutal and knocked us about a lot. We (two) couldn't stand it, and managed to escape on the 19th of April, 1918.

The following account of Cantin is illuminating:

On the 12th of April 200 of us left for Cantin, (about 16 kilometers behind the line.) We slept in a barn over a stable on verminous straw. We worked here in a pioneer park, loading ammunition and other war materials. On complaining to an officer, we were told that if we refused to work the ringleaders would be shot. The guards were very brutal, kicking us, beating us with sticks, and using their rifle butts on us. The food was even worse here; we were all starving. There was a lot of dysentery among the prisoners, but the doctors made us work all the same, and stopped our pay (3d. a day) and bread ration if we refused. Some of the men were fumigated, and got a bath, but there was no soap or towel. Many of the men were covered with sores.

In this connection the following incident, near the village of Lecluse, five miles from the firing line, may be conveniently taken from the evidence of another witness:

One day we refused to load shells, and one of our men complained to a German staff officer, who spoke English, telling him it was wrong to expect us to load

shells for them, and that we wanted to make a general complaint. His only reply was to line us up in a squad and to order that the first man who refused to work should be instantly shot.

CRUELTY AT A HOSPITAL

The hospital at Valenciennes is the subject of a gruesome account by an escaped prisoner, who was there for a month—the 25th of March to the 25th of April:

All nationalities, except Germans, were mixed together—British, Italians, Russians, French, Bulgarians. Food: black bread with a very small portion of jam or butter—this was a day's ration—about 600 grams—substitute coffee. Midday: soup of macaroni, or peas or dried vegetables. Every one got this except special cases, who got rather better quality of bread and soup. At night some more coffee; the bread was of poor quality; there was a little meat in the soup. The doctor did far from his best; his conduct was a farce; he was supposed to come to the ward twice a day; he would come in and look round, and go out without attending to any one. * * * There were some very bad cases. The supplies were short, no soap at all; bandages were of paper; no toilet requisites. Sanitary accommodation very bad; urinals were right in the wards. Bedding made of sacking material, and stuffed with wood-wool. Bed sheets were issued, but these had to be in a most dreadful condition before they would be exchanged. Eggs were issued sometimes for the man with limbs off, but very few actually received any; nurse orderlies used to take them. One nurse in particular used to save up the eggs and special bread for several days and then send them away in a parcel. * * * In some cases the Germans took our clothing, and these men simply lay in bed with nothing on except the bed covering made of cotton maché. The bedclothes were very small and very thin, and very poor quality—more like cotton than wool.

A man named Private Ellis was in my ward with a bullet wound through his lung. He lay for some days unattended to, and was then taken to see the doctor. As he was in great pain, he was calling out; the doctor hit him a hard punch on the jaw and sent him back to the ward; he came back crying, and died next morning. I do not know the doctor's name. He treated the patients very roughly. He used to pull men about dreadfully. In the first week or two I was there I counted an average of fifteen deaths a day. I am positive that, with proper treatment, there would not have been anything like this mortality.

As a final instance, the committee

takes Sailly, of which the men who were there have much to say. One who reached it on April 27, and escaped on May 18, says of it:

We were put in a cage, where there were 400 of us in all. There were huts and beds being made, but we were horribly crowded, and the vermin was awful. The camp was in the middle of a pioneer dump, and was heavily shelled. Twice at night we were turned out by the sentries, who kicked and struck us, and marched down the road toward Etang to get out of the shelling. Our work was loading shells and digging ammunition pits. We protested, but were told that German prisoners were being made to do the same work at Arras. The Landsturm guards were very brutal, and knocked us about with sticks and rifle butts. The food was again starvation diet. The men were like wild animals with hunger, and scrambled for any piece of food which may be lying about, also for cigarette ends. The water we had to drink was drawn from a filthy marsh near the camp. Besides much dysentery, there was a lot of dropsy, men's legs and bodies swelling terribly. There were about sixty men permanently sick, and five or six going to hospital daily. The doctor was kind and did his best; but it was no use, as he had no authority. The Sergeant Major and Quartermaster Sergeant were horrible brutes, and made men work until they dropped. It is impossible to describe the condition of the men in this camp. It can well be imagined the horrible, filthy condition men with dysentery were in who were forced to work. Daily about half a dozen would fall down at work, utterly exhausted, and have to be carried back to the cage. It does not seem to me that any of them can live for many weeks if these conditions continue. When it was known that we were going to try and escape, two others came and prayed us "For God's sake to try and get England to do something to help them to get out of that hell!"

Similar accounts are given by the witnesses of many other camps or cages more or less near the firing line. Many of them speak of Denain, but this was apparently primarily a distributing station. At Douai, where many were confined, "all the men were weak for lack of nourishment. It was a common sight to see them fall over for lack of food." Again, "the prisoners were often under long-range fire; shells frequently fell within 200 or 300 yards of us." At Cagnicourt, again, 1,200 men were confined in a cage—an open inclosure in a field. Later two huts were erected, but

they could only hold 400 "sitting against each other with no room to lie down." Dysentery was rampant. Here, too, however, there was a "decent" German Sergeant Major. He, however, had "no powers." Bray was seven kilometers from the British lines. One witness confined there from April 11 to 13 was "under shellfire the whole time."

MEN DELIBERATELY SHOT

There are many incidents accompanying the capture of prisoners during these recent offensives referred to in the depositions. There is, for example, the experience of four Cameron Highlanders taken at Arras on March 28, who, as soon as they were made prisoner, were compelled for two hours to serve a German field gun with ammunition and dig out a position for it under British fire. And there are other cases of the same kind. The committee, however, selects two for special mention, because they each, although in different ways, illustrate the nature of the men and the organism to which our forces are now opposed.

On March 21 fifteen officers, N. C. O.'s, and men of the 1st K. S. L. I. were taken prisoner at Lagnicourt. One of these is now among the escapes. This is his account of the incident:

We were defending a trench and held out to the last, when we were surrounded and had to surrender. The Germans beckoned us to come toward them, and as the first three of us—privates—showed ourselves to obey they were deliberately shot; the rest of us were taken prisoner.

The second incident is this. On the same day five men of the Staffordshires were taken together at Bullecourt. One of them has now escaped. This is his account of his capture:

At the time of my capture a German officer was standing near the trench, and close by him there was a private with his bayonet fixed. One of the men of my battalion was scrambling out of the trench, intending, of course, to surrender. The private ran at my comrade to bayonet him. The officer ordered the private to halt, but no attention was paid to the command, and the officer without hesitation shot the private in the head with his revolver, killing him on the spot. The British soldier had not been touched. This happened close to where I was standing.

And here the committee, for the moment, leaves this subject. The latest date of escape of any of the witnesses, so far examined, was June 24. There is nothing in the depositions of these later escapes which leads the committee to conclude that any material improvement had so far been effected in the general conditions here described, which, like those

dealt with in the committee's earlier report, to which reference has already been made, may be left for the present to speak for themselves.

On behalf of the Government Committee on the Treatment by the Enemy of British Prisoners of War.

ROBERT YOUNGER, *Chairman.*

August, 29, 1918.

Bulgarian Crimes in Serbia

By G. WARD PRICE

Official Press Correspondent in the Balkan War Zone

HERE is a story of coldblooded butchery without equal even in this war. It is the tale of a deliberate, systematic effort by the Bulgarians, extending over three months, to exterminate the national spirit of Serbia by killing every one in the parts of the country they occupied whom they thought capable of maintaining it.

I have gathered from many different sources information and evidence which establish the Bulgarian guilt beyond all doubting. Directly they had established themselves on Serbian soil in this region the Bulgarians began to change the Serbians by force into Bulgarians. After forbidding the use of the Serbian language, closing the Serbian schools, compelling every one to change the ending of his name from the Serbian "itch" to the Bulgarian "off," after installing Bulgarian Mayors, Bishops, tax collectors, and military police, they arrested in every town and village all the men who belonged to what may be called the intellectual class. They chose out the Parliamentary Deputies, Judges, teachers, lawyers, priests, and employers of labor, formed them into gangs and marched them away. From that time until the defeated Bulgarians evacuated Serbia the friends of these people heard nothing of their fate; but now the ghastly story is known in detail.

The men, numbering at least 3,000 from the towns and villages of the Vranja region alone, were taken in detachments of about fifty at a time to a place which the Bulgarians chose as their slaughterhouse, and there every night

one party after another, from December, 1915, to March, 1916, had their throats cut or were stabbed to death. The village whose name the Bulgarians have thus made terrible is a small place called Surdulitza, twenty miles northeast of Vranja, near the Bulgarian frontier. I went there and saw the graves and the surviving relatives of the 2,500 victims to Bulgarian savagery who there met their end. The doomed men, against whom the Bulgarians had no other charge whatever except that they were patriotic Serbians and likely to keep up the national spirit among their fellow-countrymen, would arrive almost every day at Surdulitza under strong Bulgarian guard. They were locked up in houses which I saw, and then at night marched down to a gully which I visited, where, tied four or five together with ropes, they were stabbed or bayoneted to death and buried where they lay. The peasants of Surdulitza offered to dig up the graves to let me see how the heads were severed from the bodies.

WHOLE VILLAGES EXTERMINATED

Not all the killing was carried out in this gully. On the other side of the village is a little wood. Every night the peasants of Surdulitza, who were forbidden to leave their houses after sunset, heard men's screams coming from among those trees. They knew too well what was happening, but did not dare to go near. And the following morning the fierce village dogs would bring into the streets human arms and even heads which they had torn off the bodies of

the murdered men. Two thousand five hundred is the local estimate of the number of the Serbians who at Surdulitza forfeited their lives to their nationality during the first three months of 1916. Not more than forty people were actually killed at Vranja itself, but once a fortnight all the surviving men were ordered out of the town while the Bulgarians ransacked and robbed their houses under pretext of searching for arms, and sometimes also outraged their women.

At Ushevtse, a hamlet to the north of Vranja, 120 men, women, and children, the entire population, were killed in one day. At Vladichi all the women were collected, and some of them violated. The rest were tied up and left, until two days later the Bulgarians came back and completed the work of outrage. Last year at Yelashnitsa and Krivafaja innocent peasants were stripped naked, tied down to braziers, and roasted over slow fires to make them confess that they possessed hidden arms. Lebane and Leskovatz were probably the worst martyred towns of all. At the former place twenty people were beaten to death.

Information about these last townships comes from Serbian municipal officials and the principal inhabitants of Vranja. I am personally entirely convinced of the sincerity of these men, and of the truth of the terrible charges they bring.

At Uskub I learned that outraging young girls was made a matter of routine by the Bulgarian authorities. Orders were issued for the girls to report themselves at the Bulgarian Headquarters. There they were lined up, and a General would walk down the ranks picking out the ones that pleased him. This story seems so extraordinary that I expressed doubt about it, but the Prefect maintains that the fact is established by the fullest corroboration. The girls chosen for the amusement of the Bulgarian officers were given the choice between submitting and being exiled to Bulgaria.

The Serbian prisoner of war camp on the outskirts of Sofia is terrible evidence of that hatred between Bulgarian and Serbian which runs like a poison through the whole system of the Bal-

kans. A mile from Sofia, near the main road to Radomir, is a muddy compound about three acres in extent, surrounded by barbed wire. On Oct. 23, 1918, there were in this pen 103,000 Serbians of all ages, together with 600 Greek civilians, carried off from Seres and Drama; a smaller body of Russians, and a detachment of French. The French were lodged in a few whitewashed mud huts which the compound contains. The greater majority of the Serbians had lain out in the open day and night, in wind and rain, Summer and Winter, many of them for three whole years of captivity. They had no blankets or protection of any kind, and at night packed their wretched bodies close together for warmth like a herd of animals. Their food was one pound of dark bread a day. Their so-called soup, which they were preparing while I was there, was just a caldron of hot water, with a dozen maize-pods in it. For drinking and washing water in this inclosure there was a solitary trickle from one small tap. Thirty men waited two hours to get near it.

Ten Serbians had died during the night before I went there. In the morning the Bulgarians put their bodies into a cart and carried them away. An hour later the same cart returned, bringing the day's bread ration. When a man could no longer stand, his friends carried him into one of the verminous little huts. There he lay until dead, and next morning the bread cart carried his carcass away. Three fresh bodies were on the ground when I reached the camp at 10 o'clock, and I was taken to see the little earth-floored cabin which with grim irony was called the "hospital." There were five Serbians in it—four just frames of skin and bone. The fifth man lay stretched on his back on the bare ground. His eyes were glazed and fixed, his breath came in quick spasms, and flies were crawling over his face. He looked as if he had but a few more hours of suffering to live. "Does no one come to do anything for these people? Have you never seen a Bulgarian medical officer here?" I asked. "Never," was the emphatic reply of a Serbian and a Greek prisoner who spoke French.

Greek Protests Against Bulgar Brutality

On Oct. 19, 1918, the Rector of the University of Athens sent the following telegram to leading universities in England, France, America, and Italy.

It is not the first time that the University of Athens sends a protest to the universities of Europe and America against heinous and unparalleled crimes. Exactly five years ago the Rector of the university, voicing the feelings of the nation, addressed in the name of civilization and humanity an appeal to all the universities and denounced the abominable atrocities committed during the Summer of 1913 by the Bulgars against the inoffensive and unarmed population of Macedonia and Thrace. Today, again, the University of Athens, relying on the scientific and moral solidarity which unites all universities, those wells of truth and culture, utters a cry of indignation against the horrors committed by the Bulgars in Eastern Macedonia, a land surrendered to them without fighting. Ruin and desolation mark the passage of the barbarians and are met everywhere by the advancing Greek Army and its gallant allies.

Incendiarism, slavery, wholesale deportations, tortments, and excesses of all sorts—these are the means used by the Bulgars in order to exterminate Hellenism. The University of Athens, the representative of Hellenism in its noblest form, protests with all its might against these shameful Bulgarian atrocities. It feels confident that when, thanks to the effort of the great leaders and the heroic soldiers of the democratic nations of the Old and New World, the time arrives for justice to redress the wrong, and freedom to fill with joy the oppressed peoples, the crimes of the Bulgars will appear more than ever heinous, and a just and proper punishment will be inflicted on their perpetrators.

PRIEST BURNED ALIVE

An officer of the Greek Department of Justice, after visiting Seres in Macedonia, reported Nov. 20, 1918, as follows:

In September, 1917, the inhabitants of Seres were 23,693, of which 14,938 were Greeks, 7,925 Turks, and 730 Israelites. In September, 1918, after the Bulgarian occupation, the inhabitants were 5,793, of which half were Bulgarians transported from the interior of Bulgaria; there were

only 2,293 Greeks, the half of which were under 10 years of age. In Drama there were found twelve bodies of Greeks thrown in wells by the Bulgarians.

A commission of the Red Cross, upon request of Mr. Venizelos, visited Eastern Macedonia and witnessed the destruction of towns and villages as well as other horrible crimes. English prisoners arriving from Bulgaria in Saloniki relate the martyrdoms suffered during their captivity. An English officer tells how he saw a Greek priest hanged by the feet and roasted in a small fire.

The Archbishop of London, who arrived in Athens after a visit to Macedonia, communicates that he was told much of the Bulgarian atrocities and the destruction of the property of the Greek population, and was a witness himself of inhuman acts. Sub-Lieutenant Manthrakis, a prisoner of war, relates that he was interned, together with English and French officers, in a cage, naked and without food. The Bulgarians stole from the English officer his gold artificial teeth.

CORROBORATIVE BRIEF

The correspondent of The London Times wrote from Sofia on Nov. 6:

Today I am semi-officially informed that out of 100,000 interned Serbs only 53,000 survive. Out of 8,000 in the Serbian prisoners' camp at Haskovo no fewer than 5,000 have died. At the Rumanian prisoners' camp at Rustchuk typhus broke out, but no Bulgarian doctor would tend the sick. A Rumanian doctor was compelled to perform this duty, but caught the infection and died. The sick were then shut up in a building by themselves and left to their horrible fate. Three hundred out of 450 perished miserably before the epidemic ceased.

Two hundred and fifty British prisoners captured seven weeks ago near Dolran were deprived of their boots, puttees, and tunics, and forced to march to Sofia, a distance of nearly 150 miles, barefoot, with no other clothing than their shirts and Summer shorts, and no other food than what they could pick up in the fields by the roadside, consisting of onions and roots and a few grains of raw maize. Bread they got only once, when, at Radomir, a small loaf was handed to each man. The journey lasted for sixteen days. These particulars were given me by five men of this unfortunate band whom I questioned separately.

Turkish Cruelty to Prisoners

Fatal Sufferings of Britons Who Fell Into Ottoman Hands at Kut-el-Amara

AN official report on the treatment of British prisoners of war in Turkey, issued in November, 1918, disclosed the fact that out of a total of 16,583 officers and men captured by the Turks, 3,290 had been reported dead, while 2,222 remained untraced, and, it is believed, have all perished. These figures, says the report, "give the exact measure of the meaning of captivity in Turkey." The most tragic fate befell the garrison which surrendered at Kut, to whom all the untraced belong—they perished in the dreadful march the Turks forced them to undertake across the Syrian Desert. Of 2,680 British noncommissioned officers and privates taken at Kut 1,306 died and 449 are untraced; that is, over 65 per cent. perished. Of 10,486 Indians, 1,290 died and 1,773 remain untraced.

After the surrender of General Townshend at Kut-el-Amara, April 29, 1916, the troops were plundered of all their valuables and then kept for a week, unsheltered in sun and rain, at Shamran—and during that week nearly 300 died. Then when the columns set out to cover the 100 miles to Bagdad the officers were forcibly separated and sent on independently by boat. As for the men:

They were herded like sheep by mounted Arab troopers, who freely used sticks and whips to flog forward the stragglers. Food was very short, the heat was intense, the clouds of dust perpetual, and a great number of the men had now neither boots nor water bottles. Their escort stripped them still further; by the time of their arrival at Bagdad most of the Arab guard were dressed in odds and ends of the British uniforms, stolen during the march. There was little or no control by the Turkish officers, who usually rode at the head of the column. The only mitigating influence was that of the Turkish doctor who accompanied the march; his name—which was Illa—deserves to be recorded, for he was untiring in his ministrations to the men; but he could, of course, do little among the thousands who needed him. One day—the fourth of the march—had abso-

lutely to be given over to rest; this was at Azizle, where some 350 sick, British and Indian, were left behind in a sort of cowshed, densely crowded and filthily verminous, to follow later by river. The rest struggled on, many of them now half naked, all so near the limit of exhaustion that there were daily deaths by the roadside. So, after nine days' march, the column arrived at Bagdad on May 15, and were marched for three or four hours through crowded streets before being taken to the place where they were to encamp.

At Bagdad most of the men remained three months, and through the unceasing efforts of the American Consul, Mr. Brissell, they at length obtained a sufficiency of food.

The main body of the prisoners was sent across the Syrian Desert from Bagdad to Asia Minor; it was this journey which proved so fatal. The report continues:

Officers who followed in their trace found parties of men lying exhausted under any shelter they could find, in all stages of dysentery and starvation; some dying, some dead; half clothed, without boots, having sold everything they could to buy a little milk. Only here and there had an attendant of some kind been left to look after them; generally there was no one but the Arab villagers, who mercilessly robbed them, or the under officer of the local police post, who stared indifferently, and protested that he had no authority to give help. The dead lay unburied, plundered, and stripped of their last clothing.

All across the desert, at one place after another, these sights were repeated; starving and dying men, in tens and twenties, lay in any scrap of shade or mud-hovel that might be allowed them, and waited their end. Some had to wait long. Many weeks later, at a desert village about three days' journey from Aleppo, there was found a group of six British soldiers and about a dozen Indians, who for three months had lain on the bare ground of a mud-walled inclosure, subsisting solely on a few scraps thrown to them by Arabs or passing caravans. The Englishmen had been fourteen; eight had died; and of the survivors only one was still able to crawl two or three hundred

yards to a place where there was water. It begins to be evident how it came about that of the men who surrendered at Kut more than 3,000, British and Indian, have never been heard of at all.

The last part of the march, over the mountain ranges of the Amanus, had been the worst of all, and here too the same terrible vestiges had been left in many places. In the future it will be possible to throw further light on the whole of

this crime of two years ago, even though much of it will remain beyond the reach of any investigation. For the present a brief and imperfect summary has to suffice. It is at least enough to insure that the march of the Kut prisoners will never be forgotten in this country. Their own silent and stoical endurance of the worst made a deep impression, we are told, on those who saw them emerge from this experience.

Constantinople Occupied

Landing of the British at Gallipoli and the Golden Horn

By H. COLLINSON OWEN

Lemnos, Nov. 10, 1918.

THE final act to one of the greatest dramas of the war was enacted yesterday (Nov. 9) when, in accordance with the terms of the armistice with Turkey, British troops landed unopposed to occupy the Gallipoli Peninsula.

We left Mudros in a destroyer at 4 in the morning to see the landing, and arrived off Cape Helles about 9. The first outward sign that we were in such historic waters was the sight of a mast sticking up off the rocky coast of Imbros. This marked the spot where the big monitor Raglan and the smaller one, M-28, went down when standing up hopelessly against the Goeben and the Breslau at the time of their ill-starred sortie last year.

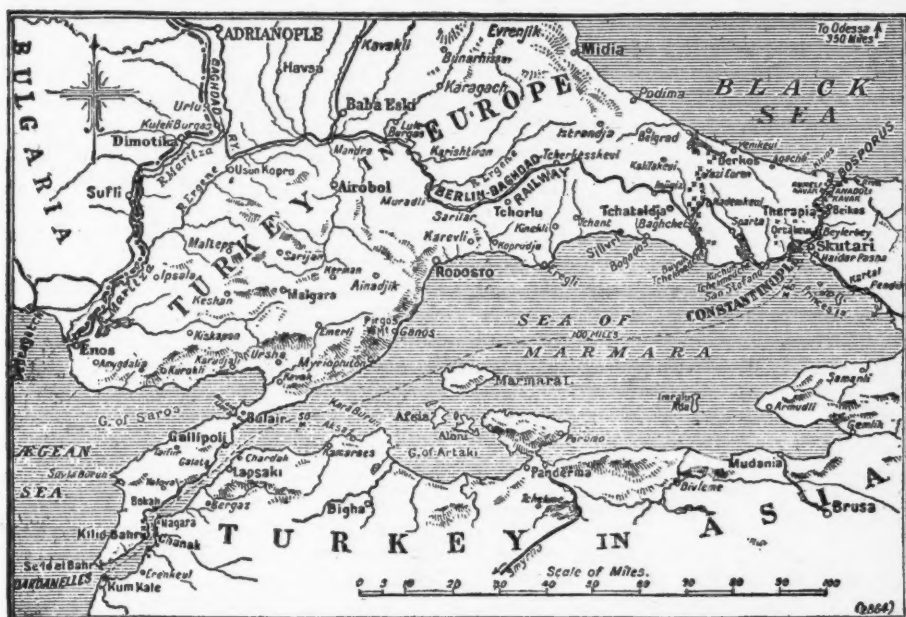
Later in the day, up toward the Narrows, we saw the remains of submarine E-15, which ran ashore when trying to ascend the strait and was torpedoed from a launch by our own men under heavy fire, and a little further up the rusty bottom of the Turkish battleship Messudiyeh, looking like an immense turtle, marked one of our submarine successes. We passed over deep waters that concealed the remains of sunken British and French battleships, the Ocean, Irresistible, Majestic, Goliath, Triumph, and Bouvet. We anchored just off V beach, where the River Clyde was run ashore.

The Turkish troops occupying the peninsula had been removed some days before, and for the time being not a

single Turk was to be seen. V Beach along to Cape Helles and so to W Beach is as unlovely and barren a strip of coastline as can be imagined. Above us to our right were the remains of the old fort of Sedd el Bahr, which the fleet knocked to pieces in the first bombardment. We walked up steep ground, passed over old trenches, both our own and the enemy's, and saw new ones constructed in case of the further attack which for months past the Turks had been expecting. Everywhere, too, were elaborate telephone connections. Here, on the ground which we had won and given up again, the Turks were expecting to fight us once more. The two heavy guns which we captured and blew up were still lying there, not far from a modern heavy battery with deep ammunition dugouts cut in rocky soil and a plentiful supply of six-inch shells neatly arranged in galleries.

IN THE DARDANELLES

We embarked again near the River Clyde in a patrol launch, and proceeded up the strait. Intelligence officers on board, maps in hand, were marking down various points of information and verifying the positions of batteries. Altogether, on both sides of the strait, there are about fifty batteries containing guns ranging from 6-inch to 14-inch, a considerable portion of which are modern. We passed within five yards of an ugly Turkish mine floating on the surface. We went ashore at Chanak and



walked to Hamidieh battery, a mile and a half away, which is the strongest on the strait. At Chanak were Turks in plenty, both soldiers and otherwise, and everybody appeared quite well fed. The population appeared pleased to see a group of British officers walking about, glad that the war for them was over.

Hamidieh fort was quite deserted. It has played a big part in the operations against the Dardanelles. It has three 14-inch guns, dating back to the eighties, and six 9.2-inch guns. Looking from one of the emplacements one could see right down to the mouth of the strait and beyond. At the moment of writing British soldiers are probably already in possession, and here, as at every other battery, a small party of Turkish noncoms and men will be temporarily left to put the guns clean and in order, and we shall hold the forts until such time as the Allies shall have decided what is exactly to happen to the Dardanelles in the future.

By the time we returned to Cape Helles a big transport and an old type cruiser, both loaded with British troops, were lying there. The unwieldy craft nosed slowly ashore and put her nose to the pier just alongside the bow of the

River Clyde. Our men—troops who have seen much hard service in Macedonia—stepped ashore with their kits, and that was all the incident there was to the second landing in Gallipoli.

AT THE GOLDEN HORN

G. Ward Price, the Official British correspondent, wrote from Constantinople on Nov. 10:

At Chanak lay a gray transport steamer with British troops on board. She had arrived a little before us, and the khaki figures that lined her rail, staring curiously at the low-lying little town, with its old stone castle and its throng of equally interested inhabitants, were on their way to garrison the forts of the Narrows further up. With a Turkish pilot on board to guide us through the rest of the minefields, the destroyer made her way on into the Sea of Marmora, and increased her speed to thirty knots. So that at 3 o'clock this afternoon, under a cloudy sky, but one filled with the diffused lights of the East, we rounded the point of the old Seraglio and entered the Golden Horn.

There was no demonstration of any kind. It seemed as if no one had even noticed the arrival of this herald of the

British fleet. But as we drew near to the quay one saw that the houses and windows were thronged with people. The crowd had an unusual tone of red about it, derived from all the crimson fezzes bobbing to and fro as their wearers strained for a glimpse. And a few waved handkerchiefs. A German officer stood on the quay close to where the destroyer gradually came alongside. He was more interested than any one, but affected indifference and yawned with care from time to time. A little group of German soldiers and sailors gradually formed behind him as if for mutual moral support. For years they had been the self-ordained military gods of this place, but now their altars are overthrown and they see Turkish naval officers of high rank hurrying past them to pay respects to the representative of a nation they once thought they could despise. We are, indeed, much surrounded by an unwelcome neighborhood of Germans. Germans look down on us from their office windows opposite the quay. Here in my bedroom at the Pera Palace Hotel there are Germans talking in the rooms on either side of me as I write. I gather from fragments overheard that they are packing up. One is pleased to think that their compatriots throughout Turkey are doing the same. As we drove up from the quay, too, there seemed a considerable number of Germans, and also Austrians, in the streets. The Austrians saluted the party of British officers. The Germans swaggered by with a stare, the noncommissioned officers and men smoking cigars, which give them to English eyes a peculiar appearance of pretentiousness.

ARRIVAL OF WARSHIPS

An Associated Press correspondent at Constantinople cabled on Nov. 13:

For the fourth time in a century British battleships have passed through the Dardanelles and arrived at Constantinople on a mission of war. It was at 1:30 o'clock this morning that the flagship *Superb* was sighted in the Sea of Marmora, steaming slowly toward the entrance of the Bosphorus. Behind her came the *Temeraire*, bearing General Sir Henry Wilson, who will command the

garrisons of allied troops in the forts of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus. The *Lord Nelson* and the *Agamemnon* were next, and then followed, in the imposing procession of the line ahead, cruisers, destroyers, and other craft, making up the British squadron. Behind them came the French squadron in similar formation. Then followed Italian and Greek warships.

At the entrance of the Bosphorus the fleet was divided into two parts. The *Superb* and *Temeraire*, followed by two French battleships, came on. As the silent line of great gray ships anchored close to the European shore of the strait, within near view of the Sultan's palace and the Turkish Chamber of Deputies, the two French battleships dropped anchor astern of them, and then followed the battleships of Italy and Greece.

But the rest of the allied fleet is lying around the corner of the Bosphorus in the Sea of Marmora, and at noon today the whole fleet will weigh anchor again and go to its prepared base in the Gulf of Ismid.

General Wilson has just landed on the quay. He was received by Djavad Pasha, Turkish Chief of Staff, and on the quay were drawn up as a guard of honor several hundred British and Indian prisoners of war in their light-colored clothes of blanket cloth. Massed everywhere as near as the Turkish police would let them come were dense crowds of Constantinople inhabitants. Most of these onlookers were Greeks who had been excited by the arrival of the Greek warships at the Turkish capital.

The Turks themselves watched the arrival of the allied ships with apparently complete indifference. Germans and Austrians who were abroad in Constantinople showed an inquisitiveness about this morning's events which one would have thought their own private feelings would have excluded. There were even Austrian soldiers down at the quay to photograph the ceremony.

Sultan Mohammed VI., in a statement issued Dec. 6, expressed great sorrow at the treatment of the Armenians by "certain political committees of Turkey," and added:

Such misdeeds and the mutual slaughter of sons of the same fatherland have broken my heart. I ordered an inquiry as soon as I came to the throne so that the fomenters might be severely punished, but various fac-

tors prevented my orders from being promptly carried out. The matter is now being thoroughly investigated. Justice will soon be done and we will never have a repetition of these ugly events.

The Dawn of a New Era

By FREDERIC HARRISON

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DO we realize the enormous changes in all forms of life which this Earth-War has brought about? Do we feel into what a new world we are entering—what a new epoch of civilization we have to make? As a very old man who has long been a student of history, whose business it once was to teach the principles that should govern the comity of nations, I see that these years of war, without example in range and in horror, have caused a new, let us trust a loftier, civilization to appear, in which militarism and national hostility may be transformed into an age of Industry and Peace.

Not that these four years of fighting alone have done this. The great evolution of enlarged Humanity has been moving on by stormy stages ever since the first Republic of France, and the successive waves mark the revolutionary growth in Europe. Onward it went, with the final overthrow of the Bourbon monarchy in 1830, England's Reform act and all that it caused in 1832, then the European revolutions of 1848-9, the establishment of the third and final republic in France by Gambetta in 1879, the British reforms in a long series during half a century—all these led up to the vast transformation that this colossal war has made manifest.

Take it in all its aspects and all its consequences, this New Era of which we see the dawn is greater and more blessed than the epoch when Europe began to settle after barbarism, more pure than the advent of the New Learning and the New Thought, more wise than the spasmodic revolutions in the times of Danton or Napoleon.

I look back with amazement on the progress of civilization even within my own lifetime. At my birth in 1831 slave-holding was legal within the dominions of the British Crown; in a Parliament of rotten boroughs Birmingham had no member, but Grampound had. Until 1834 there was no public grant for education, and then it was only £20,000. Exclusive State Churches dominated in Ireland, Scotland, and England. Food was cruelly taxed by tariff. Labor was oppressed, for no factories acts existed. The savage laws of felony and death had only just been partly redressed. Transportation of convicts to the colonies was in full course. Down to my time, about fifty to sixty criminals were hanged each year.

What a march of popular progress I have lived to witness: Reform in Parliament, in education, in free trade, in law, in Church. In these eighty-seven years the change has been as great as in 700 years since Magna Charta.

When I was a schoolboy the only republic was in America. Russia, it was thought, might overwhelm Europe. China and Japan were closed to Europeans. India was ruled by a trading company, and was constantly invaded by the northern races. The United States had a total population of little more than 12,000,000, one-tenth of whom were slaves. England's colonies were small primitive settlements, having constant difficulties with the colored aborigines.

Italy was parceled out among retrograde sovereigns, of whom the most arbitrary was the Vatican heir of St. Peter. Austria was a vast military empire holding the finest parts of Italy, and imposing its will and its practices upon a

network of German dukeries. There were no railroads, no ocean steamships, no telegraph, no cheap post, no free press, no public education, no pure water, no main drainage, no free commerce. Trade unions were criminal societies. Dissenters were possible rebels.

And now this Armageddon has opened an era in which the old order seems dissolved as in a cataclysm. Empires in China, in Russia, in Austria, in Germany are dissolving like storm clouds. Nearly half the human race have passed from despotism to republics. The terrific machinery of war that for two generations had been organized at Berlin has been pulverized, never to darken this earth again.

New republics have emerged out of the wreckage. Asia has been freed from the cruel desolation where the Turk had planted his foot. Africa has been freed from the murderous greed of the Hun. Japan is entering and in due time China will enter into the civilized community of nations. Some twenty different peoples have joined in arms to resist the menace of domination by one. The common cause of civilization in peril has roused free men from Newfoundland and the Mississippi to the Ganges, from the Cape of Good Hope to Australia, New Zealand, and Japan.

Miracle, above all, after nearly a century and a half, Britons and American citizens of various races have fought side by side, as brothers in arms, and almost again as one people with a common fatherland. Nothing so deep-seated as this, so potent in possible enlargement as this, has ever happened in the civilized world since the Catholic and feudal settlement in the age of the Crusades, when Europe had at least the bond of a common faith, and of a common spirit of chivalry, loyalty, and honor.

With all its vices and its limitations, mediaeval Europe had some common ideal, even if it misused and abused it. Our common ideal, we trust, is far grander and wider, more wise and more humane. 'Tis a weighty task that lies

on us; to keep to it steadfastly, to make it live and grow to Peace among Men.

This awful time of bloodshed, ranging from the Arctic Circle to the furthest Pacific, has given new meaning to all the forces that have been gathering up for a century, and it has discovered many new forces and brought together former enemies. Only twenty years ago Britain and America, Britain and France, were at arm's length. Can Britain, France, the United States, Italy, ever be parted again? Will not the races of Russia, Turkey, of the Central Empires, owe their free life to us—now together the vanguard of civilization?

Four years of superhuman strain have transformed the face of the world. East and west, north and south, have come together as brothers, in ways that they never knew. Humanity has come into its own in Peace and Union! Inventions to use and control the material earth, which were dreamed of for generations, have suddenly become mighty realities.

The Roman poet said: "Wings were not given to man." Man has developed wings! There is no limit now to what air transit may do for human intercourse. Express service, postal service, will soon be by air, even if we do not scrap our railroads altogether. Submarine navigation has recast the whole condition of naval construction, even if we do not scrap our dreadnoughts altogether. At any rate, there never again shall be the old race of armaments, no huge standing armies, no dominion of the seas so as to menace the rest of the world.

The barbarous blood tax must cease. Nevermore shall the nations have to offer up their sons to Moloch. The hideous waste of labor in engines of destruction—more than half the entire cost of government—must cease. And with the waste of labor for destruction there must be ended also the waste of labor in debasing luxuries and wanton extravagance.

It will be a new world in this twentieth century. Shall we be new men, new women, worthy to use it rightly?

Women in War Industries

By EMILY NEWELL BLAIR

[NOVEMBER, 1918]

THE close of the war finds women employed in practically every industry. In agriculture they do everything, from raising bees to testing milk, not omitting the harvesting of crops. In construction and building trades they are employed in shipyards and airplane factories, and are qualified as skilled riveters, calkers, chippers, reamers and carpenters, electricians, painters, pipe fitters, plumbers, roofers, sheet metal and brickyard workers. There are woodswomen as well. There are women log inspectors and women miners. In munition and other industries incident to the war they follow such tasks as burring, tracing, chopping, assembling meters and coils, drafting, molding, cylindrical grinding, copper tipping, power dispatching, repairing and testing valves, straightening razor parts, diamond die drilling, machine burnishing, and wire bending. In the work of transportation they are taking their places as ticket agents at railroad stations and acting as street-car conductors and motormen, teamsters, chauffeurs, auto truck, taxi and ambulance drivers.

In view of this influx of women into branches of industry hitherto closed to them, a general and desirable curiosity is manifested as to the actual degree to which women have replaced men, how they are trained to fill these positions, the effect on industrial production, and the means taken to protect the health of women and standards of industry.

Although figures on the employment of American women since the beginning of the world war and since our entry into the war must necessarily be suggestive rather than authoritative, several surveys, taken under conditions making for accuracy, indicate the trend of the women-in-industry movement. In 1910 the number of women engaged in gainful occupations, according to the United States census, was 8,750,772. Today, according to the estimates compiled

by the American Association for Labor Legislation, approximately 11,000,000 women are so engaged. These figures include clerks, stenographers, and professional women, as well as the skilled and unskilled workers. A survey made in 1914 authorized by the National Industrial Conference Board gives 1,649,687 women workers engaged in manufacturing industries alone. An investigation conducted by Marie Obernauer, now Chief of Examiners for the War Labor Board, and published by the Committee on Public Information in April, 1918, gives the size of the "Woman's Industrial Army of Defense," as she calls it, as 1,500,000. More recent figures, compiled from other sources, place the number of women employed in essential industries as 2,000,000.

Except in such cases as those in which industries have supplied the needs of soldiers instead of civilians, the Government instead of individuals, these workers must either have been transferred from the nonessential industries to the essential or recruited from the untrained women of the hitherto unproductive class.

SUPPLYING GOVERNMENT NEEDS

As the demand in the early days of the war was for trained women, naturally the larger number of women were found in those industries which had already employed them. According to Miss Obernauer's report, 900,000 women were engaged in five industries supplying the Government. Of this number, 80,000 were in canneries; 125,000 in the food, spice, condiment, drug and tobacco factories; 275,000 in textile occupations, 212,000 running machines in clothing factories, 130,000 in knitting and hosiery mills; 95,000 were shoe workers. In many cases these factories had merely changed their markets. Neither their output nor their number of employes had increased. But the report further calls at-

tention to the fact that it takes 300,000,000 yards of cloth to clothe, bed, and shelter an army of a million and a half in the field, that a million and a half men at the front require 15,000,000 knit undershirts, nearly 20,000,000 pairs of underdrawers, and 27,000,000 pairs of socks during the year; that the War Department had placed orders for 21,000,000 pairs of shoes to be delivered by June 1, 1918. It is fairly evident that to meet these demands there had to be an increased output and calls for more workers. This conclusion is further supported by Miss Obernauer's statement:

Within a few months after Congress declared the existence of a state of war, calls for nearly 10,000 factory and mill trained women were made. The most insistent calls, and those hardest to fill, were not for women to make bandages and bullets, but to do woman's world-old job, to spin, to weave, to knit, to sew, and to conserve food—not in the old-time kitchen fashion, which produces in dozens, but in the new factory and mill way, under which the productive power of women labor is raised a hundred and a thousand fold.

In some cases it was necessary to bring the utterly unskilled into these trades. For instance, in the little town of Manchester, N. H., where war orders for shoes and leggings placed a problem before the McElwain Shoe Company, which would have created a serious housing problem if workers had been brought in large numbers from other communities, a special publicity campaign was organized by the United States Employment Office, urging women of the community to enter the factory as a patriotic duty. Many college women and others who had not previously been employed were induced to take up this work. So far as reports have been received, they have proved satisfactory.

IN MUNITION FACTORIES

Miss Obernauer's report, while emphasizing the importance of woman's world-old work, notes the readiness with which women went into munition factories. She lists 600,000 women as furnishing the scores of things that come under the category of equipment; 100,000 in establishments not recognized as munition plants, yet doing work essential to the

waging of the war, such as the making of bolts and screws to be used on ships, wireless and other electrical appliances, spark plugs and parts of airplanes, submarines and army trucks; and 100,000 in private munition plants and Government-owned arsenals.

This readiness, she thinks, was not only the result of the higher wages paid in these new establishments, but was part of the war psychology of the women public, which fails to appreciate its own singular importance and consequent responsibility in the winning of the war by work on essential industries other than munition making. It may be, however, that this attitude is due partly to the fact that, except in cases of munition workers, there has been no credit, no glory, not even relief from monotony in the work of these war industries. The report says:

To the work of other women the war has at least lent the attraction of newness and variety. For the factory and mill trained women in the older industries the war has only intensified the monotony of repetition work. It has meant less cloth of variegated colors and textures for a heterogeneous civilian market and enormously more of uniform color and texture for the army and navy. It has meant fewer metal novelties and more standardized parts for the instruments of war. But the drill in monotony which has been the portion of these women in peace time has seasoned them for the more intensified monotony of wartime work.

The desirability of transferring women from nonessential to essential industries was at first strongly urged. Just one instance will suffice to note the nature of those transfers, which reports to the United States Employment Service indicate have been very large, particularly since the War Industries Board and the War Trade Board have been actively controlling the supply of raw materials, domestic and imported, of all manufacturers. The Government's gas-mask factory in Long Island City secured through the United States Employment Service of New York a corps of 1,000 skilled power-machine operators who had formerly been employed in the manufacture of collars and corsets to stitch their gas masks.

GOVERNMENT FIGURES

To the end, presumably, that information as to the need for such transfer, also for substitution, might be available, in January of 1918 the United States Employment Service published a report of a survey of industries engaged in war work, made to ascertain facts about the labor supply. The survey was made of war industries in forty-four cities in New York State and formed a basis of judging labor conditions in the manufacturing centres.

The 500 factories which were visited in the course of the survey employed 216,117 persons. About 176 of these factories called for additional labor before June, 1918. Woman labor was requested in only a little more than one-tenth of the total number. The women workers required were only 300. They were confined practically to the industries engaged in the manufacture of instruments and tools, and in many cases the manufacturers asked for "either men or women." It is notable in this connection that one firm which was investigated, although on its schedule it made no request for women to take the place of men, had already substituted 400 women and acknowledged its intention of substituting many more. Its action called forth vigorous protests from organized labor because it was said that lower wages were being paid to women in this plant than to men. The report continues: "It should be pointed out here that until steps have been taken to use all available skilled male labor in war industries there can be no intelligent control of women in industry."

Other reports, issued by the Merchants Association of New York in November, 1917, and by the National Association of Corporation Schools, Bulletin of October, 1917, and a compilation made by the New York State Industrial Commission on the basis of answers to a questionnaire sent in August, 1917, to 1,600 employers of labor in the State, show a relatively small number of women substituted for men. At the same time, the proportionate increase in employment of women appears to have been particularly marked in the war indus-

tries, especially in the metal and machine trades.

During April and May, 1918, an investigation of 600 selected establishments where it seemed probable that women might be employed on metal manufacturing processes was made by the National Industrial Conference Board, representing seventeen large manufacturing associations in the United States. The results of this inquiry were published in July, 1918, in a report entitled "War Time Employment of Women in the Metal Trades." This is apparently the latest report on women in industry to be made on anything like a large scale from direct investigation. A compilation made by this board from the abstract of the census of manufacturers of 1914 shows that women comprise only 4.6 per cent. of the total labor force in those metal trades in which they were employed, or 98,112 from a total of 2,140,789 employees. For ninety-six establishments which furnished the board definite figures on the substituting of women employes since August, 1914, the women substituted were 10,801 out of a total of 34,667 female employes, or 31.2 per cent.; 5,107, or nearly 50 per cent., have been added or substituted in ten munition establishments. Of the 330 manufacturers replying to the questionnaire, only 131 employed female labor in manufacturing processes. Out of a total labor force of 384,709, in these 131 establishments, 49,831 were women, making the proportion of women 12.9 per cent.

SPECIAL TRAINING FOR WOMEN

As the Government continued to induct men into military service, the demand for women workers necessarily increased. With this increased demand came increased interest in the problem of giving training to those women who were unskilled. The position of the Section on Industrial Training for War Emergency was that women should not do heavy manual labor or enter men's trades, except as necessary for the prosecution of the war; but when women had to do so in order to make up our industrial quota they must receive training. This section of the Committee on Labor, Council of

National Defense, was ultimately merged in the Training and Dilution Service of the Department of Labor.

The Federal Board for Vocational Education was also concerned with promoting industrial training, and disbursed a considerable sum upon a half-and-half plan for salaries of vocational instructors employed by the States. This board in August, 1918, emphasized the need of training for the following classes of women:

Those who have not hitherto been employed and have entered industry because of economic pressure or a desire for patriotic service; those who have been partially or casually employed and desire permanent employment; those who seek in the diverse opportunities at present offered a change from congenial employment to desirable work.

The board described the training that had been instituted to meet the needs of these classes of workers to meet the war emergency. Experiments were made in industrial plants in connection with their employment departments. Private schools and other institutions were stimulated to inaugurate new classes. Public schools in many cases adopted day, part-time, and evening classes to meet these new needs.

VESTIBULE SCHOOLS

But in most cases this problem of training women for industrial service has been handled by individual employers. At the present time the consensus of opinion among them seems to favor the "Vestibule Schools" as the method giving the quickest result in training unskilled workers. The vestibule school is so named because it is actually the entrance to the factory. Many plants are willing to employ unskilled women to operate machines under instructional supervision. These machines are duplicates of those used in the main factory, and the finished product of the vestibule school goes, after inspection, into the same channels as the factory product. As soon as the worker has shown ability to work without instruction, she is given regular employment. In some cases production from the vestibule schools equals the records set by the regular workers.

The apprentice workers are paid a stipulated rate while learning, and when promoted to regular work they are advanced to pay by the hour or piece according to custom of that particular factory. In the Curtiss airplane plant at Buffalo, F. L. Glynn, who was formerly State Director of Vocational Education in Wisconsin, is, with assistants, in charge of a vestibule school occupying a balcony 50 by 600 feet, running down the centre of a great shop.

Ninety-seven industrial plants engaged in war orders introduced the vestibule school and were listed by the Training and Dilution Service. The form of training even under this system varies. The Bethlehem Steel Company has two different types of schools for women workers in operation. School No. 1 is in a separate building equipped with the necessary machines and tools. The new workers are here assigned to skilled mechanics as instructors, who teach the proper method of doing bench work and of operating any of the following types of machines: Drill presses, gun boring lathes, turret lathes, shapers, milling machines. As soon as they develop a certain degree of skill in the training school they are placed in the production shops. All these women learners have been paid at the rate of 25 cents an hour while in training. This was increased to 29 cents as soon as they could handle production work. The nature of the work in these shops made it necessary for workers to become all-around operators or bench hands—that is, they had to be given a broad training, including blueprint reading and the use of precision-measuring instruments.

Still another type of school is maintained by the Packard Company, which employs 1,000 women in its plant in operations requiring varying degrees of intelligence and skill, the lowest wage being 35 cents an hour for greasers and packers. A miniature factory, in which the learners are segregated from the experienced workers, is equipped for a school. The teachers are chosen from the regular workers, and instruct about 200 women at a time. The newcomer is set to work upon series of exercises

which are based upon the requirements of production work. With the help of eight blueprints and the materials which accompany them, the learners become sufficiently familiar with the terms and tools and simple processes to understand the language of the instructor when he teaches the machine. When she passes on to the machine she may choose the special kind on which she prefers training—the lathe, the turret lathe, milling machine, planer, shaper, or the drill. She may become more or less familiar with several. She must also become experienced in inspecting and assembling parts, and altogether spends three weeks before being sent into the plant.

EFFICIENCY OF WOMEN

As to efficiency maintained by women workers, the report of the National Industrial Conference Board referred to before includes a comparison of output which indicates that the output of women compares favorably with that of men.

It appears that in 30 establishments out of 99 the output of women is greater than that of men in all operations in which both were engaged; in 6 it was greater in some, equal in others; in 30 it was equal to that of men. In other words, in 66 establishments, or two-thirds of those furnishing definite information as to output, women's production was equal to or greater than that of men in the operations where both were employed. In only 15 establishments was it found that women produced less than men in all operations in which they were engaged. In the remaining 18 establishments, although less on some operations, their production was equal or greater on others. Further investigation discloses the fact that among those operations in which some employers reported women to be less efficient than men, there were very few which were not being carried on with much success by women in other establishments. For instance, in one automobile factory women were found inferior to men in light bench and machine work, yet in other factories doing similar work their output on the same processes was equal to or greater than that of the men.

As to the attitude of women, of 111 manufacturing establishments reporting on this subject 103 stated that the attitude of women toward their work was as good or better than that of men; 8 that it was worse. It should be taken into consideration that most of the factory

work which women perform requires little initiative or self-reliance.

Comparisons of the wage rate of women with those of men is complicated by the fact that operations done by women have been modified, sometimes so that the work done is not identical with that done before by men, and that one class of workers might be paid by piece rate, others on time work. Excluding the 21 establishments for which there was no basis for comparison, in the 53 of the remaining 106 women received the same rates of pay as men, whether on time or on piece work; in 29, women's piece work was the same as men's, but their time rates were lower. In 24 both piece and time rates were lower.

The principle of equal wages for equal work found specially marked recognition among employers in those industries where the employment is a comparatively new feature. For example, eighteen establishments manufacturing foundry and machine shop products pay women equal rates where they do the same work as men, while eight pay them equal piece rates. In the munition industry five establishments pay equal rates, six pay equal piece rates but lower time rates. The relatively large number of cases where women receive lower rates in electrical manufacturing is due to the fact that women have been employed in this industry for a much longer period, and that certain occupations came to be regarded as women's work at a time when the principle of equal wages was seldom accepted.

A considerable number of employers . . . indicated no changes in equipment following the introduction of women workers, or changes only in the direction of increasing the safety provisions. . . . In several cases where increased war demands led to the employment of women on a considerable scale that additional equipment was chosen with the idea of its adaptability to female workers. . . . That is, making the machinery easier to operate, arranging for delivering materials, furnishing specially designed tools, providing well-lighted workrooms, and proper seating arrangement, which applies to the men as well as the women, these tend to reduce fatigue and increase efficiency.

ACCIDENTS TO WOMEN

It was reported that in a majority of cases the accident rate was lower for women than for men, but no accurate figures or even estimates were given. Many manufacturers attributed this to the fact that women were engaged in work of a less hazardous character than were the men. A Government report, based on an

investigation in 1908, showed the number of accidents to women at that time about one-third greater than to men. A significant feature of this tabulation was "that, of the accidents to women, practically 60 per cent. occurred during the "first week of employment and over 30 "per cent. on the first day of employment, as compared with approximately "35 per cent. and 19 per cent. respectively "in the case of men. The latter figures "indicate clearly that the learning period "is peculiarly dangerous for women "workers and emphasizes the desirability "of a thorough training, which appears "to be more necessary for women than "for men, as many women have little or "no previous mechanical experience."

In order that the health of women should be conserved and the proper protection thrown around them, early in the war the Ordnance Department established in its Industrial Service Section a woman's division, which has a supervisor in each ordnance district. It is her duty to co-operate with other officials of the Ordnance Department in keeping production at the top notch of efficiency by the upkeep of proper working standards among women employes and at the same time to see that the women are properly safeguarded. As an additional protection to the health of the workers special attention has been given to the training and recruiting of women health supervisors to be situated in Government-owned plants.

Since then the Department of Labor has created a Women in Industry Service to exercise the same function with regard to all women in industries controlled directly or having contracts with the Federal Government. These standards are set forth briefly in a resolution that recommends the standards as to hours, night work, wages, and conditions of labor, previously set forth by the Government in such orders as No. 13, issued by General Crozier. Order No. 13, addressed to arsenal commanders and manufacturers, suggests that efforts be made to restrict the work of women to eight hours even where the law permits

a nine or ten hour day, asks that the employment of women on night shifts should be avoided, that rest periods every four and a half hours be arranged, that at least thirty minutes for meals, which are not to be eaten in workrooms, be allowed; that a Saturday half holiday be given, and that no woman be required to lift repeatedly more than 25 pounds in any single load. While it states that care should be taken to make sure that, when it becomes necessary to employ women on work hitherto done by men, the task be adapted to the strength of women, it strongly advocates equal wages for equal service.

OCCUPATIONS DIFFERENTIATED

This resolution of the War Labor Policies Board further sets forth its opinion that the shortage in labor should be met in part by introducing women into those occupations easily filled by them, and that they should not be employed in places or occupations clearly unfit for them, either because of physical or moral conditions or youth. The placing of women in hazardous employments and new occupations is to be regulated by standards especially applicable to these occupations, as set forth, from time to time, either by the Federal Government or by the State Labor Departments. The recruiting of mothers of young children for war industries is to be discouraged.

While the movement of women into industry must naturally create special problems, these same problems are themselves factors in the problems created by the conditions and necessities of industry itself. The introduction to the first orders issued officially as standards of industry may be quoted as indicating the Government's point of view: "In view of "the urgent necessity for a prompt increase in the volume of production of "practically every article required for "the conduct of the war, vigilance is demanded of all those in any way associated with industry, lest the safeguards "with which people of this country have "sought to protect labor should be unwisely and unnecessarily broken down."

Women's War Work in Three Nations

By CAROLINE RUNTZ REES

THE first intimation that the British authorities set a practical value upon the services of women came in March, 1915, when the Board of Trade issued an appeal to them to volunteer for war service, opened a register for them, and frankly stated that women's work was needed. Women showed their readiness; in the course of the first week 20,000 registered, but employers were not yet ready to call upon them, and the registration was followed by disappointment.

The war register was very slowly drawn upon, but meanwhile women were being drafted into service by less official channels. They began acting as commissionaires, messenger boys, lift women, as doers, in fact, of all the miscellaneous work that meets the public eye. They pushed milk carts and cleaned ships in the docks; they took the places everywhere of men in domestic service; they replaced them in secondary boys' schools and in the banks; but even such occupations, easily attracting casual attention, were not really indicative of any vital change in the national life. Yet eighteen months later the War Office, officially compiling a book on "Woman's War Work" to show what categories of men might be released for military service by the substitution of women, listed under the head of "Munition Work Successfully Undertaken by Women" 20 trades, 205 processes, some of these with 18 subdivisions. Under "Manufactured Articles or Parts" 300 articles were named, with such broad headings as "Scientific Instruments." For the more exact work named in this publication women were trained in more than 60 technical schools and colleges; had, in fact, already in 1917 been so trained to the number of 32,000.

BRITISH MUNITION WORKERS

Whether scientifically or empirically trained, all Englishwomen could ultimately find some kind of war work to do. And their country looked to them not for

efficiency merely, but for heroism. Danger was ever present in the munition factories, no less because of the nature of the material used than because the factory was one of the first objectives of the air raiders. A vivid account of the behavior of the girl operators in a factory at Woolwich Arsenal is given by one of the "principal overlookers" in a book called "Munition Lassies." The night shift was gathered for dinner in the canteen when the lights switched out suddenly; yet, the first confusion over, no one attempted to move. The workers rested quietly and 2,000 of them sang through the long night, while others, wearied out, fell calmly asleep through the cannonading, "which could be heard all around us and in the midst of us." After such a night the over-looker found "all operations in hand." One girl spoke the mind of the factory: "We must work our very hardest to make an end of those Zepps."

The conditions of the work in munition factories were unusually good. Wages were high and, from the first, the Government followed the principle of equal pay for equal work, at least so far as piecework was concerned. Good housing, good canteens, good superintendence were provided; the crowded tenements and poor food supplies of the early days of the war were things of the past. Special tribunals dealt with wages, and justice was in the main the result of their findings. Government or private employer also provided welfare workers, whose activities undoubtedly added to the comfort and well-being of the workers, even though regarded in some quarters—the Standing Joint Committee of Industrial Women's Organizations, for example—as "open to very serious objections." So established, so important, was the Englishwoman's share in her country's effort to supply the field forces with ammunition.

Hardly less vital to the success of the Allies' arms was woman's part in the

production of food. It was largely in her hands; indeed, the increase in the number of women in agriculture between 1911 and July, 1916, was estimated by the Board of Trade at 66,000, and under the "List of Occupations in Which Women Are Successfully Employed in Agriculture" the War Office brochure counted, apart from miscellaneous work, thirty-seven "particulars of occupation." These women were so successful that it could be officially stated that, before America came into the war, England, alone of the Allies, had in the course of it materially increased her food supply.

The War Office compilation already referred to gives a list of sixty-six other trades in which women are "maintaining the industries and export trade of the United Kingdom," and this list is followed by seventy-two photographs of women at work, twenty-two of them starred as illustrating "heavy physical work," such as is performed by coal workers, shipyard workers, stokers, &c. These photographs portray employments so various as grooming horses, harrowing, making airplanes and motor cycles, setting type, electric spot welding, baking, handling and hanging leather. Skill and strength are obviously there, without detriment to feminine seductiveness, if one may judge by the two Pierrots in white caps, blouses, and leggings, barrowing in a flour mill, or the stoker in trousers and close cap, her shovel, full of coal, swinging to the furnace mouth, a towel over her shoulders and its end between her teeth. Dedicated as it is to a purely practical purpose, the War Office publication is yet, in the introductory note offered by the Adjutant General, a tribute to the "effective contribution of women to the empire in its hour of need."

SERVICES OF FRENCHWOMEN

Frenchwomen not only, like Englishwomen, showed readiness and ability to serve, but these from the first easily found the right paths to service. Mrs. Atherton quotes a moving tale of farmers' wives and daughters who did not allow the break of a single day to interrupt the procession of great trucks of produce from the outlying gardens and

orchards to the markets of Paris, and this was but an earnest of the help Frenchwomen were to render in agriculture—instant, steady, and ennobled by the tonic incentive of its imperative necessity to their country. In work on the land they apparently outstripped their English sisters.

In munition work they almost equaled them. In the early Summer of 1915 there were some 14,000 Frenchwomen engaged in Government munition factories, for the most part in subsidiary processes. Private factories occupied some 30,000. In 1916 Government and Government-controlled factories gave work to no less than 109,000, and in the same period the processes on which women were working doubled in number. In other trades also, not immediately connected with national defense, there was, according to the Government reports, a similar striking increase. For example, in chemical industries the number of processes undertaken by women rose in ten months from six to twenty-two; in food production, from eleven to twenty; in metal work, from thirteen to seventy-eight; in textiles, from thirteen to thirty.

When the war had been going on for two years the Government opened the way for Frenchwomen to serve the army in an official capacity. In May, 1916, the Under Secretary of State for the Commissariat Department, recommending their extensive employment in the military sphere, took pains to brush aside objections to the employment of women even in the most confidential capacities. "It is perfectly possible," he writes, "to find women of irreproachable morality quite as trustworthy as any military secretary." In July, 1916, the Secretary for War indorsed and emphasized his colleague's recommendation, ordering that no soldier should be used for what women could do in any part of the army except in the active ranks; finally, at the year's end, the War Ministry, formulating rules for women in military camps, depots, and services, listed their occupations from that of chief employes of bureaus to that of cooks and washerwomen.

The conditions of service were good;

women's wages, maximum and minimum, were settled by the commandant of the district and yearly revised, and 10 per cent. was allowed for overtime by day, 40 per cent. by night. The question of paying women frankly for their work, without condescension or discrimination, needed consideration in France as elsewhere. The Under Secretary of State for Munitions, anticipating the fears of those who simply think that, with equal pay, the wages of women are too strangely out of the ordinary, the fear, moreover, that the manufacturer's dread of high wages might check output, decided, (Feb. 28, 1916,) that, in estimating women's wages, the expense of the modifications necessitated by their employment must be taken into account, as also the actual quality and quantity of their work. "If this is not enough," he was quaintly ready with the suggestion that soldiers' family allowances should be lessened for workers, so as to reduce the amount in those feminine pockets, yet—aye, there's the rub—not sufficiently to "remove the incentive to new and increasing effort." Equal pay for equal work became, however, the general rule for the Government employment.

As to the success of Frenchwomen at their new undertakings, official opinion is convinced. According to one report the women in factories have shown a "satisfactory aptitude, at times even remarkable and superior to that of men." In sawmills, except for the heaviest work, employers assure the Government that women are as good as men, and from Dijon comes the striking testimony that employers do not think as well of the Greeks, Moroccans, Kabyles, and Chinese in the workshops as of women. In whatever form they receive the acknowledgment of their usefulness, Frenchwomen may justly feel that their work has in truth attained "that status which it needs and deserves," which it was the specified object of a Government committee to procure for it.

AMERICAN WOMAN'S STATUS

In spite of much talk, the same could not, at the end of the war, be said of the status of our own countrywomen. Of unpaid women workers the Red Cross, the

Food Administration, the Liberty Loan Committee utilized a veritable army, yet a large margin would still have remained unco-ordinated had not a Government committee, the Council of National Defense, attempted to give official status, at least to the volunteer efforts of women, by the formation of its Woman's Committee. Definitely formed for war purposes, the creation of this body was prompted, according to the Secretary of War, "by an appreciation of the very valuable service that the women of the country can and are anxious to render in the national defense and the desire to establish some common medium through which the council might be brought into closest touch with them and into the fullest utilization of their services." It was, however, to be purely advisory, and, although a notable record of work stands to its account, it so remained to the end.

The committee's country-wide organization, carried down to village and city wards, has nevertheless proved a telling contribution to national efficiency. The organized women of every town and village, eager helpers in the Liberty Loan, War Savings, Food Conservation, Red Cross, and lesser "campaigns," have also, at a request from Washington, carried out much other work, from forming branches of the Traveler's Aid Society or recruiting nurses and stenographers, to urging the passage of desirable bills through Congress, or investigating the observance of enacted laws.

VOLUNTARY REGISTRATION

The Woman's Committee, moreover, inaugurated in October, 1917, a national voluntary registration of women. In some instances, notably Illinois, it had a triumphant success; in others the results were less encouraging. The usefulness of the task lay chiefly in uncovering a great source of volunteer work. In the City of New Haven, for example, the committee was able, in the course of seventeen weeks, to supply to various patriotic and municipal associations 4,746 hours of volunteer service. On the other hand, the registration also revealed a certain reserve of paid labor. In the same city, where out of 18,000

registrations the 2,000 for paid labor brought about the engagement of only seventy-nine operatives, the educative effect of the registration was later felt by the manufacturers when they recruited among their own townswomen in order to avoid importation from without.

Even at the close of the war, however, when women were flowing into factories in response to the demands of an ever-increasing volume of work, they seemed to be taking the places of men in comparatively small measure. In the opinion of one woman director of the United States Employment Service, women were not, even then, really needed to take up men's work in factories; and this view is supported—or was six months earlier—by so competent an authority as Pauline Goldmark. One munition factory in Connecticut in 1918 increased for a time by 50 per cent. its weekly hire of women; women, however, supplementing, not supplanting, men. In a town where the Federal Employment Service had announced that three or four hundred jobs were waiting for women to fill them, another factory had, at the beginning of 1918, over fifteen hundred women employed, where in 1914 they had less than nine hundred. In another, on the other hand, war orders actually diminished the number of women and augmented the number of men needed for the increasingly heavy war work.

TAKING OVER MEN'S WORK

Although the increase of women operatives in a given factory seems, as a rule, not to have indicated that they took the place of men, there were signs of coming change in this regard. F. E. Weakly, for instance, writing in *System*, gave an interesting account of a factory engaged, the reader may gather, in munitions work, which was frankly planning to give men's places to women. On the entrance of the United States into the war the employer at once associated with him in employment work two women who, judging every task by the reach and body position required, the weight to be lifted and the fatigue involved, discovered several kinds of work new to women that could be done by

them. The opening of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps enticing away from this factory "promising young executives hand-picked to take over departments in years to come," women were put in training to take even their alluring posts. Other manufacturing companies testified to the same effect, one even reporting ten university graduates in charge of the bonus and costs department.

So far as undertaken, the experiment of substituting women for men appears to have met with success. Various employers testify that women learn quickly, are more attentive to their work than men, do it accurately, and keep at it steadily. Excelling the men in perseverance, they are neater and prompter and observe factory regulations better; but, on the other hand, their record of absence is 20 per cent. greater. One firm even maintains that "after a short intensive instruction" women can accomplish tasks previously only given to apprentices of two or three years' standing. One otherwise enthusiastic employer was compelled, indeed, to admit that few women can appreciate the difference between a sharp and dull cutting tool or have any conception of the importance of dimensions or any judgment as to mechanical strength or requirements. But the latter shortcoming is really a blessing in disguise, for "they will not use that judgment which is frequently so disastrous on the part of men employees," nor "do things" with machinery on their own initiative in the masculine manner. The chorus of praise seems to be almost unanimous, pointed, in one instance, by the statement of an employer that, through the efforts of women, his output of rifles rose from 300 to 5,000 a day. As an antidote, the sex may digest the testimony of a factory manager who, admitting the "greater efficiency" of women, feels it more than offset by the difficulty of managing them.

Praise is, moreover, generally tempered with surprise. A manufacturer of small tools was astonished to find that women, whom he employed in an emergency, turned out more work and better work than men. His astonish-

ment is typical and sheds an instructive light upon the common estimate of women's intelligence and persistence.

The railroads still lead in the employment of women instead of men. In all forms of unskilled labor they are here liberally employed, and they have proved equally or even more successful in untrained work. Railroadng is even beginning to offer women something in the nature of a career. One woman, an employe of the Western Union, has risen to be Tri-City Passenger Agent of the Burlington Railway in Iowa; another, a

teacher and university graduate, holds a responsible position in the offices of the General Superintendent of Motor Power, and there are other such examples here and there.

To meet women on equal wage terms is much to ask of men even yet, even of American men. But until that simple solution of the problem is arrived at, as it has been in England, we must not expect our women to equal European women in effective contribution to the country's resources, whether in war or in peace industries.

Examples of Women's War Work

Women composed nearly 70 per cent. of the workers who shocked grain in the harvest fields around Fargo, N. D., in the Autumn of 1918. This war service was brought about through the local office of the United States Employment Service, Department of Labor.

Owing to the scarcity of agricultural labor in the community, the various farm-labor reserves, enlisted in Fargo by the Employment Service, were called out to shock large quantities of grain. Two thousand volunteers were employed throughout the season. At the close of the harvest the Fargo employment office, the Fargo Commercial Club, and the Fargo Rotary Club arranged a parade to commemorate the success of the season's work. Business was suspended in Fargo on the day that the procession, composed of the various groups that had performed faithful service in the harvest fields, marched through the streets. A tally by the Marshals of the parade revealed the fact that almost 70 per cent. of the emergency farm workers were women. The "shock troops," men and women, were dressed in their ordinary working clothes.

An experimental Woman's Agricultural Camp was established in the Summer of 1917 at Bedford, N. Y. This group of women, mostly inexperienced but all of sound health, of years varying from 16 to 45 and drawn from numerous professions—the colleges, trades, (mostly sewing,) and the teaching profession contributing the largest number—were

convinced that owners of existing farms should be helped before new land was put under cultivation. They therefore established themselves in a central camp and, going by automobile to the farms which needed them, worked there in squads of six or eight, proving their own argument that all kinds of agricultural work could be done by women. From the farmer's point of view and that of the worker's health there is ample testimony that the experiment was a success. The camp was not, however, self-sustaining, although the wage which was considered normal in peace time was asked for the women's work.

According to information received from the Department of Labor, practically all the work incident to the issue of \$6,000,000,000 worth of bonds for the Fourth Liberty Loan, with the exception of the two press divisions, was the work of women. James L. Wilmeth, Director of the United States Bureau of Printing and Engraving, reported that all the counting and examining of the bonds and much assistance in printing requiring accuracy and skill devolved upon the 2,000 women employes.

The large scope of women's war work in England is illustrated by an achievement "somewhere on the northeast coast," where a tract of waste land that lay below high-water level was rapidly converted into a shipyard of eight berths, largely by feminine labor. The work began in March, 1918, and the first ship was launched in November.

The President's Address to Congress

Delivered December 2, 1918

President Wilson delivered verbally his annual message to Congress on Dec. 2, 1918, in which he announced his intention of going abroad to attend the Peace Conference at Paris. The portions of the address relating to the war are here reproduced:

GENTLEMEN OF THE CONGRESS:

THE year that has elapsed since I last stood before you to fulfill my constitutional duty to give to the Congress from time to time information on the state of the Union has been so crowded with great events, great processes, and great results that I cannot hope to give you an adequate picture of its transactions or of the far-reaching changes which have been wrought in the life of our nation and of the world. You have yourselves witnessed these things, as I have. It is too soon to assess them; and we who stand in the midst of them and are part of them are less qualified than men of another generation will be to say what they mean, or even what they have been. But some great outstanding facts are unmistakable and constitute, in a sense, part of the public business with which it is our duty to deal. To state them is to set the stage for the legislative and executive action which must grow out of them and which we have yet to shape and determine.

A year ago we had sent 145,918 men overseas. Since then we have sent 1,950,513, an average of 162,542 each month, the number in fact rising, in May last to 245,951, in June to 278,760, in July to 307,182, and continuing to reach similar figures in August and September—in August 289,570 and in September 257,438. No such movement of troops ever took place before, across three thousand miles of sea, followed by adequate equipment and supplies, and carried safely through extraordinary dangers of attack—dangers which were alike strange and infinitely difficult to guard against. In all this movement only 758 men were lost by enemy attack—630 of whom were upon a single English transport which was sunk near the Orkney Islands.

I need not tell you what lay back of this great movement of men and material. It is not invidious to say that back of it lay a supporting organization of the industries of the country and of all its productive activities more complete, more thorough in method and effective in result, more spirited and unanimous in purpose and effort than any other great belligerent had been able to effect. We profited greatly by the experience of the nations which had already been engaged for nearly three years in the exigent and exacting business, their every resource and every executive proficiency taxed to the utmost. We were their pupils. But we learned quickly and acted with a promptness and a readiness of co-operation that justify our great pride that we were able to serve the world with unparalleled energy and quick accomplishment.

PRAISE FOR THE SOLDIERS

But it is not the physical scale and executive efficiency of preparation, supply, equipment, and dispatch that I would dwell upon, but the mettle and quality of the officers and men we sent over and of the sailors who kept the seas, and the spirit of the nation that stood behind them. No soldiers or sailors ever proved themselves more quickly ready for the test of battle or acquitted themselves with more splendid courage and achievement when put to the test. Those of us who played some part in directing the great processes by which the war was pushed irresistibly forward to the final triumph may now forget all that and delight our thoughts with the story of what our men did. Their officers understood the grim and exacting task they had undertaken and performed it with an audacity, efficiency, and unhesitating courage that touch the story of convoy

and battle with imperishable distinction at every turn, whether the enterprise were great or small—from their great chiefs, Pershing and Sims, down to the youngest Lieutenant; and their men were worthy of them—such men as hardly need to be commanded, and go to their terrible adventure blithely and with the quick intelligence of those who know just what it is they would accomplish. I am proud to be the fellow-countryman of men of such stuff and valor. Those of us who stayed at home did our duty; the war could not have been won or the gallant men who fought it given their opportunity to win it otherwise; but for many a long day we shall think ourselves "accurs'd we were not there, and hold our manhoods cheap while any speaks that fought" with these at St. Mihiel or Thierry. The memory of those days of triumphant battle will go with these fortunate men to their graves; and each will have his favorite memory. "Old men forget; yet all shall be forgot, but he'll remember with advantages what feats he did that day."

What we all thank God for with deepest gratitude is that our men went in force into the line of battle just at the critical moment when the whole fate of the world seemed to hang in the balance and threw their fresh strength into the ranks of freedom in time to turn the whole tide and sweep of the fateful struggle—turn it once for all, so that thenceforth it was back, back, back for their enemies, always back, never again forward! After that it was only a scant four months before the commanders of the Central Empires knew themselves beaten; and now their very empires are in liquidation!

SPIRIT OF THE NATION

And throughout it all how fine the spirit of the nation was; what unity of purpose, what untiring zeal! What elevation of purpose ran through all its splendid display of strength, its untiring accomplishment. I have said that those of us who stayed at home to do the work of organization and supply will always wish that we had been with the men whom we sustained by our labor; but we

can never be ashamed. It has been an inspiring thing to be here in the midst of fine men who had turned aside from every private interest of their own and devoted the whole of their trained capacity to the tasks that supplied the sinews of the whole great undertaking! The patriotism, the unselfishness, the thoroughgoing devotion and distinguished capacity that marked their toilsome labors day after day, month after month, have made them fit mates and comrades of the men in the trenches and on the sea. And not the men here in Washington only. They have but directed the vast achievement. Throughout innumerable factories, upon innumerable farms, in the depths of coal mines and iron mines and copper mines, wherever the stuffs of industry were to be obtained and prepared, in the shipyards, on the railways, at the docks, on the sea, in every labor that was needed to sustain the battlelines, men have vied with each other to do their part and do it well. They can look any man-at-arms in the face, and say, We also strove to win and gave the best that was in us to make our fleets and armies sure of their triumph!

And what shall we say of the women—of their instant intelligence, quickening every task that they touched; their capacity for organization and co-operation, which gave their action discipline and enhanced the effectiveness of everything they attempted; their aptitude at tasks to which they had never before set their hands; their utter self-sacrifice alike in what they did and in what they gave? Their contribution to the great result is beyond appraisal. They have added a new lustre to the annals of American womanhood.

The least tribute we can pay them is to make them the equals of men in political rights as they have proved themselves their equals in every field of practical work they have entered, whether for themselves or for their country. These great days of completed achievement would be sadly marred were we to omit that act of justice. Besides the immense practical services they have rendered, the women of the country have been the moving spirits in the systematic

economies by which our people have voluntarily assisted to supply the suffering peoples of the world and the armies upon every front with food and everything else that we had that might serve the common cause. The details of such a story can never be fully written, but we carry them at our hearts and thank God that we can say that we are the kinsmen of such.

COMPLETE TRIUMPH

And now we are sure of the great triumph for which every sacrifice was made. It has come, come in its completeness, and with the pride and inspiration of these days of achievement quick within us we turn to the tasks of peace again—a peace secure against the violence of irresponsible monarchs and ambitious military coteries and made ready for a new order, for new foundations of justice and fair dealing.

We are about to give order and organization to this peace not only for ourselves but for the other peoples of the world as well, so far as they will suffer us to serve them. It is international justice that we seek, not domestic safety merely. Our thoughts have dwelt of late upon Europe, upon Asia, upon the Near and the Far East, very little upon the acts of peace and accommodation that wait to be performed at our own doors. While we are adjusting our relations with the rest of the world is it not of capital importance that we should clear away all grounds of misunderstanding with our immediate neighbors and give proof of the friendship we really feel? I hope that the members of the Senate will permit me to speak once more of the unratified treaty of friendship and adjustment with the Republic of Colombia. I very earnestly urge upon them an early and favorable action upon that vital matter. I believe that they will feel, with me, that the stage of affairs is now set for such action as will be not only just but generous and in the spirit of the new age upon which we have so happily entered.

So far as our domestic affairs are concerned, the problem of our return to peace is a problem of economic and industrial readjustment. That problem is

less serious for us than it may turn out to be for the nations which have suffered the disarrangements and the losses of war longer than we. Our people, moreover, do not wait to be coached and led. They know their own business, are quick and resourceful at every readjustment, definite in purpose, and self-reliant in action. Any leading strings we might seek to put them in would speedily become hopelessly tangled because they would pay no attention to them and go their own way. All that we can do as their legislative and executive servants is to mediate the process of change here, there, and elsewhere as we may. I have heard much counsel as to the plans that should be formed and personally conducted to a happy consummation, but from no quarter have I seen any general scheme of "reconstruction" emerge which I thought it likely we could force our spirited business men and self-reliant laborers to accept with due pliancy and obedience.

RELEASE OF INDUSTRIES

While the war lasted we set up many agencies by which to direct the industries of the country in the services it was necessary for them to render, by which to make sure of an abundant supply of the materials needed, by which to check undertakings that could for the time be dispensed with and stimulate those that were most serviceable in war, by which to gain for the purchasing departments of the Government a certain control over the prices of essential articles and materials, by which to restrain trade with alien enemies, make the most of the available shipping, and systematize financial transactions, both public and private, so that there would be no unnecessary conflict or confusion—by which, in short, to put every material energy of the country in harness to draw the common load and make of us one team in the accomplishment of a great task. But the moment we knew the armistice to have been signed we took the harness off. Raw materials upon which the Government had kept its hand for fear there should not be enough for the industries that supplied the armies have been released and put into the general market

again. Great industrial plants whose whole output and machinery had been taken over for the uses of the Government have been set free to return to the uses to which they were put before the war. It has not been possible to remove so readily or so quickly the control of foodstuffs and of shipping, because the world has still to be fed from our granaries and the ships are still needed to send supplies to our men overseas and to bring the men back as fast as the disturbed conditions on the other side of the water permit; but even these restraints are being relaxed as much as possible, and more and more as the weeks go by.

AID FOR WAR SUFFERERS

After discussing matters of labor and trade at home, and recommending the plans of the Secretary of the Interior for reclaiming waste or arid lands, President Wilson continued:

I have spoken of the control which must yet for a while, perhaps for a long while, be exercised over shipping because of priority of service to which our forces overseas are entitled and which should also be accorded the shipments which are to save recently liberated peoples from starvation and many devastated regions from permanent ruin. May I not say a special word about the needs of Belgium and Northern France? No sums of money paid by way of indemnity will serve of themselves to save them from hopeless disadvantage for years to come. Something more must be done than merely find the money.

If they had money and raw materials in abundance tomorrow they could not resume their place in the industry of the world tomorrow—the very important place they held before the flame of war swept across them. Many of their factories are razed to the ground. Much of their machinery is destroyed or has been taken away. Their people are scattered, and many of their best workmen are dead. Their markets will be taken by others, if they are not in some special way assisted to rebuild their factories and replace their lost instruments of manufacture. They should not be left to the vicissitudes of the sharp competition

for materials and for industrial facilities which is now to set in.

I hope, therefore, that the Congress will not be unwilling, if it should become necessary, to grant to some such agency as the War Trade Board the right to establish priorities of export and supply for the benefit of these people whom we have been so happy to assist in saving from the German terror and whom we must not now thoughtlessly leave to shift for themselves in a pitiless competitive market.

DUTY TO GO TO PARIS

The President recommended the reducing of the coming year's taxation from \$8,000,000,000 to \$6,000,000,000, the completion of the naval program adopted at the beginning of the war, and the serious consideration by Congress of the policy to be adopted regarding the railroads. He said it would be a disservice to the country and the railroads to permit a return to old conditions under private management, without modifications; but unless a satisfactory plan of readjustment could be worked out at an early date he would release the roads from Government control. He ended his address with these words:

I welcome this occasion to announce to the Congress my purpose to join in Paris the representatives of the Governments with which we have been associated in the war against the Central Empires for the purpose of discussing with them the main features of the treaty of peace. I realize the great inconveniences that will attend my leaving the country, particularly at this time, but the conclusion that it was my paramount duty to go has been forced upon me by considerations which I hope will seem as conclusive to you as they have seemed to me.

The allied Governments have accepted the bases of peace which I outlined to the Congress on the 8th of January last, as the Central Empires also have, and very reasonably desire my personal counsel in their interpretation and application, and it is highly desirable that I should give it in order that the sincere desire of our Government to contribute without selfish purposes of any kind to settlements that will be of common benefit to all the na-

tions concerned may be made fully manifest. The peace settlements which are now to be agreed upon are of transcendent importance both to us and to the rest of the world, and I know of no business or interest which should take precedence of them.' The gallant men of our armed forces on land and sea have consciously fought for the ideals which they knew to be the ideals of their country; I have sought to express those ideals; they have accepted my statements of them as the substance of their own thought and purpose, as the associated Governments have accepted them; I owe it to them to see to it, so far as in me lies, that no false or mistaken interpretation is put upon them, and no possible effort omitted to realize them. It is now my duty to play my full part in making good what they offered their life's blood to obtain. I can think of no call to service which could transcend this.

I shall be in close touch with you and with affairs on this side the water, and you will know all that I do. At my request the French and English Governments have absolutely removed the censorship of cable news which until within a fortnight they had maintained, and there is now no censorship whatever exercised at this end except upon attempted trade communications with enemy countries. It has been necessary to keep an open wire constantly available between Paris and the Department of State and another between France and the Department of War. In order that this might be done with the least possible interference with the other uses of the cables, I have temporarily taken over the

control of both cables in order that they may be used as a single system. I did so at the advice of the most experienced cable officials, and I hope that the results will justify my hope that the news of the next few months may pass with the utmost freedom and with the least possible delay from each side of the sea to the other.

May I not hope, Gentlemen of the Congress, that in the delicate tasks I shall have to perform on the other side of the sea, in my efforts truly and faithfully to interpret the principles and purposes of the country we love, I may have the encouragement and the added strength of your united support? I realize the magnitude and difficulty of the duty I am undertaking; I am poignantly aware of its grave responsibilities. I am the servant of the nation. I can have no private thought or purpose of my own in performing such an errand. I go to give the best that is in me to the common settlements which I must now assist in arriving at in conference with the other working heads of the associated Governments. I shall count upon your friendly countenance and encouragement. I shall not be inaccessible. The cables and the wireless will render me available for any counsel or service you may desire of me, and I shall be happy in the thought that I am constantly in touch with the weighty matters of domestic policy with which we shall have to deal. I shall make my absence as brief as possible and shall hope to return with the happy assurance that it has been possible to translate into action the great ideals for which America has striven.

America the Deciding Factor

Marshal Joffre said in a conversation with Dr. H. S. Krams of New York: "It was the weight of America, her moral and material resources, and surely not the least her very considerable army, thrown into the balance at the crucial moment, that turned the scales and won the victory. And the Americans showed themselves true soldiers and a military power that counted tremendously in the decisive conflict."

[OFFICIAL]

The United States Navy in the War

Secretary Daniels' Story of Its Achievements in Nineteen Months of Unprecedented Activity

Josephus Daniels, Secretary of the Navy, issued an official report on Dec. 8, 1918, in which he presented the following full account of the work of the navy during the war:

THE operations of our navy during the world war have covered the widest scope in its history. Our naval forces have operated in European waters from the Mediterranean to the White Sea. At Corfu, Gibraltar, along the French Bay of Biscay ports, at the English Channel ports, on the Irish Coast, in the North Sea, at Murmansk and Archangel our naval forces have been stationed and have done creditable work. Their performance will probably form the most interesting and exciting portion of the naval history of this war, and it is the duty which has been most eagerly sought by all of the personnel, but owing to the character of the operations which our navy has been called upon to take part in it has not been possible for all of our naval forces, much as they desired it, to engage in operations at the front, and a large part of our work has been conducted quietly, but none the less effectively, in other areas. This service, while not so brilliant, has still been necessary, and without it our forces at the front could not have carried on the successful campaign that they did.

Naval men have served on nearly 2,000 craft that plied the waters, on submarines, and in aviation, where men of vision and courage prevent surprise attacks and fight with new-found weapons. On the land, marines and sailors have helped to hold strategic points, regiments of marines have shared with the army their part of the hard-won victory, and a wonderfully trained gun crew of sailors has manned the monster 14-inch guns which marked a new departure in land warfare.

In diplomacy, in investigation at home

and in all parts of the world by naval officers and civilian agents, in protecting plants and labor from spies and enemies, in promoting new industrial organizations and enlarging older ones to meet war needs, in stimulating production of needed naval craft—these are some of the outstanding operations which mark the heroic year of accomplishment.

FIGHTING CRAFT

The employment of the fighting craft of the navy may be summed up as follows:

1. Escorting troop and cargo convoys and other special vessels.
2. Carrying out offensive and defensive measures against enemy submarines in the Western Atlantic.
3. Assignment to duty and the dispatch abroad of naval vessels for operations in the war zone in conjunction with the naval forces of our allies.
4. Assignment to duty and operation of naval vessels to increase the force in home waters. Dispatch abroad of miscellaneous craft for the army.
5. Protection of these craft en route.
6. Protection of vessels engaged in coast-wise trade.
7. Salvaging and assisting vessels in distress, whether from maritime causes or from the operations of the enemy.
8. Protection of oil supplies from the Gulf.

In order to carry out successfully and speedily all these duties large increases in personnel, in ships of all classes and in the instrumentalities needed for their production and service were demanded. Briefly, then, it may be stated that on the day war was declared the enlistment and enrollment of the navy numbered 65,777 men. On the day Germany signed the armistice it had increased to 497,030 men and women, for it became necessary to enroll capable and patriotic women as yeomen to meet the sudden expansion

and enlarged duties imposed by war conditions. This expansion has been progressive. In 1912 there were 3,094 officers and 47,515 enlisted men; by July 1, 1916, the number had grown to 4,293 officers and 54,234 enlisted men, and again in that year to 68,700 in all. In granting the increase Congress authorized the President in his discretion to augment that force to 87,800. Immediately on the outbreak of the war the navy was recruited to that strength, but it was found that under the provisions of our laws there were not sufficient officers in the upper grades of the navy to do the war work. At the same time the lessons of the war showed it was impossible to have the combatant ships of the navy ready for instant war service unless the ships had their full personnel on board and that personnel was highly trained.

In addition to this permanent strength recourse was had to the development of the existing reserves and to the creation of a new force.

NAVAL VOLUNTEERS

Up to 1913 the only organization that made any pretense of training men for the navy was the Naval Militia, and that was under State control, with practically no Federal supervision. As the militia seemed to offer the only means of producing a trained reserve, steps were at once taken to put it on a sound basis, and on Feb. 16, 1914, a real Naval Militia under Federal control was created, provision being made for its organization and training in peace, as well as its utilization in war. As with all organized militia, the Naval Militia, even with the law of 1914, could not, under the Constitution, be called into service as such except for limited duties, such as to repel invasion. It could not be used outside the territorial limits of the United States. It is evident then that with such restrictions militia could hardly meet the requirements of the navy in a foreign war, and to overcome this difficulty the "National Naval Volunteers" were created in August, 1916.

Under this act members of Naval Militia organizations were authorized to volunteer for "any emergency," of which emergency the President was to be the

judge. Other laws included the same measure, provided for a reserve force, for the automatic increase of officer personnel in each corps to correspond with increases in enlisted men, and for the Naval Flying Corps, special engineering officers, and the Naval Dental and Dental Reserve Corps. It also provided for taking over the lighthouse and other departmental divisions by the navy in time of war. Briefly, then, on July 1, 1917, three months after the declaration of war, the number of officers had increased to 8,038—4,694 regulars, 3,344 reserves—and the number of enlisted men to 171,133—128,666 regulars, 32,379 reserves, 10,088 National Naval Volunteers. The increase since that time is as follows:

April 1, 1918:—

Regular Navy—		Officers.	Men.
Permanent	5,441	198,224	
Temporary	2,519	
Reserves	10,625	85,475	
Total	18,585	283,717	

Nov. 9, 1918:—

Regular Navy—		Officers.	Men.
Permanent	5,656	206,684	
Temporary	4,833	
Reserves	21,985	290,346	
Total	32,474	497,030	

THE NAVY THAT FLIES

The expansion of aviation in the navy has been of gratifying proportions and effectiveness. On July 1, 1917, naval aviation was still in its infancy. At that time there were only 45 naval aviators. There were officers of the navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard who had been given special training in and were attached to aviation. There were approximately 200 student officers under training, and about 1,250 enlisted men attached to the Aviation Service. These enlisted men were assigned to the three naval air stations in this country then in commission. Pensacola, Fla., had about 1,000 men, Bay Shore, Long Island, N. Y., had about 100, and Squantum, Mass., which was abandoned in the Fall of 1917, had about 150 men. On July 1, 1918, there were 823 naval aviators, approximately 2,052 student officers, and 400 ground officers attached to naval aviation. In addition, there were more

than 7,300 trained mechanics, and more than 5,400 mechanics in training. The total enlisted and commissioned personnel at this time was about 30,000.

THE SHIPS

On the day war was declared 197 ships were in commission. Today there are 2,003. In addition to furnishing all these ships with trained officers and men, the duty of supplying crews and officers of the growing merchant marine was undertaken by the navy. There has not been a day when the demand for men for these ships has not been supplied—how fit they were all the world attests—and after manning the merchant ships there has not been a time when provision was not made for the constantly increasing number of ships taken over by the navy.

During the year the energy available for new construction was concentrated mainly upon vessels to deal with the submarine menace. Three hundred and fifty-five of the 110-foot wooden submarine chasers were completed during the year. Fifty of these were taken over by France and fifty more for France were ordered during the year and have been completed since July 1, 1918. Forty-two more were ordered about the end of the fiscal year, delivery to begin in November and be completed in January.

Extraordinary measures were taken with reference to destroyers. By the Summer of 1917 destroyer orders had been placed which not only absorbed all available capacity for more than a year, but required a material expansion of existing facilities. There were under construction, or on order, in round figures, 100 of the thirty-five-knot type.

During the year, including orders placed at navy yards, the following have been contracted for: Four battleships, 1 battle cruiser, 2 fuel ships, 1 transport, 1 gunboat, 1 ammunition ship, 223 destroyers, 58 submarines, 112 fabricated patrol vessels, (including 12 for the Italian Government,) 92 submarine chasers, (including 50 for the French Government,) 51 mine sweepers, 25 seagoing tugs and 46 harbor tugs, besides a large number of lighters, barges, and other auxiliary harbor craft.

In addition to this, contracts have been placed for twelve large fuel ships in conjunction with the Emergency Fleet Corporation.

Ships launched during the year and up to Oct. 1, 1918, include 1 gunboat, 93 destroyers, 29 submarines, 26 mine sweepers, 4 fabricated patrol vessels, and 2 seagoing tugs. It is noteworthy that in the first nine months of 1918 there were launched no less than 83 destroyers of 98,281 tons aggregate normal displacement, as compared with 62 destroyers of 58,285 tons during the entire nine years next preceding Jan. 1, 1918.

There have been added to the navy during the fiscal year and including the three months up to Oct. 1, 1918, 2 battleships, 36 destroyers, 28 submarines, 355 submarine chasers, 13 mine sweepers and two seagoing tugs. There have also been added to the operating naval forces by purchase, charter, &c., many hundred vessels of commercial type, including all classes from former German transatlantic liners to harbor tugboats and motor boats for auxiliary purposes.

Last year the construction of capital ships and large vessels generally had been to some extent suspended. Work continued upon vessels which had already made material progress toward completion, but was practically suspended upon those which had just been begun, or whose keels had not yet been laid. The act of July 1, 1918, required work to be actually begun upon the remaining vessels of the three-year program within a year. This has all been planned and no difficulty in complying with the requirements of the act and pushing rapidly the construction of the vessels in question is anticipated. Advantage has been taken of the delay to introduce into the designs of the vessels which had not been laid down numerous improvements based upon war experience.

WORK OVERSEAS

War was declared on April 6, 1917. On the 4th of May a division of destroyers was in European waters. By Jan. 1, 1918, there were 113 United States naval ships across, and in October, 1918,

the total had reached 338 ships of all classes. At the present time there are 5,000 officers and 70,000 enlisted men of the navy serving in Europe, this total being greater than the full strength of the navy when the United States entered the war. The destroyers upon their first arrival were based on Queens-town, which has been the base of the operations of these best fighters of the submarines during the war. Every facility possible was provided for the comfort and recreation of the officers and men engaged in this most rigorous service.

During July and August, 1918, 3,444,012 tons of shipping were escorted to and from France by American escort vessels; of the above amount 1,577,735 tons were escorted in and 1,864,677 tons were escorted out of French ports. Of the tonnage escorted into French ports during this time only 16,988 tons, or .009 per cent., were lost through enemy action, and of the tonnage escorted out from French ports only 27,858, or .013 per cent., were lost through the same cause. During the same period, July and August of this year, 259,604 American troops were escorted to France by United States escort vessels without the loss of a single man through enemy action. The particulars in the above paragraph refer to United States naval forces operating in the war zone from French ports.

During the same time—July and August—destroyers based on British ports supplied 75 per cent. of the escorts for 318 ships, totaling 2,752,908 tons, and including the escort of vessels carrying 137,283 United States troops. The destroyers on this duty were at sea an average of 67 per cent. of the time, and were under way for a period of about 16,000 hours, steaming approximately an aggregate of 260,000 miles. There were no losses due to enemy action.

The history of the convoy operations in which our naval forces have taken part, due to which we have been able so successfully to transport such a large number of our military forces abroad, and so many supplies for the army, is a chapter in itself. It is probably our major operation in this war, and will in the

future stand as a monument to both the army and the navy as the greatest and most difficult troop transporting effort which has ever been conducted across seas.

[The Secretary says the convoy system was "suggested by President Wilson." He continues:]

This entire force, under command of Rear Admiral Albert Gleaves, whose ability and resource have been tested and established in this great service in co-operation with the destroyer flotilla operating abroad, has developed an anti-submarine convoy and escort system the results of which have surpassed even the most sanguine expectations.

TROOPS CARRIED OVERSEAS

American and British ships have carried over two million American troops overseas. The United States did not possess enough ships to carry over our troops as rapidly as they were ready to sail or as quickly as they were needed in France. Great Britain furnished, under contract with the War Department, many ships and safely transported many American troops, the numbers having increased greatly in the Spring and Summer. A few troops were carried over by other allied ships. The actual number transported in British ships was more than a million.

Up to Nov. 1, 1918, of the total number of United States troops in Europe, 924,578 made passage in United States naval convoys under escort of United States cruisers and destroyers. Since Nov. 1, 1917, there have been 289 sailings of naval transports from American ports. In these operations of the cruiser and transport force of the Atlantic fleet not one eastbound American transport has been torpedoed or damaged by the enemy and only three were sunk on the return voyage.

Our destroyers and patrol vessels, in addition to convoy duty, have waged an unceasing offensive warfare against the submarines. In spite of all this, our naval losses have been gratifyingly small. Only three American troopships—the Antilles, the President Lincoln, and the Covington—were sunk on the return voyage. Only three fighting

ships have been lost as a result of enemy action—the patrol ship *Alcedo*, a converted yacht, sunk off the coast of France Nov. 5, 1917; the torpedo boat destroyer *Jacob Jones*, sunk off the British coast Dec. 6, 1917, and the cruiser *San Diego*, sunk near Fire Island, off the New York coast, on July 19, 1918, by striking a mine supposedly set adrift by a German submarine. The transport *Finland* and the destroyer *Cassin*, which were torpedoed, reached port and were soon repaired and placed back in service. The transport *Mount Vernon*, struck by a torpedo on Sept. 5 last, proceeded to port under its own steam and was repaired.

The most serious loss of life due to enemy activity was the loss of the Coast Guard cutter *Tampa*, with all on board, in Bristol Channel, England, on the night of Sept. 26, 1918. The *Tampa*, which was doing escort duty, had gone ahead of the convoy. Vessels following heard an explosion, but when they reached the vicinity there were only bits of floating wreckage to show where the ship had gone down. Not one of the 111 officers and men of her crew was rescued, and, though it is believed she was sunk by a torpedo from an enemy submarine, the exact manner in which the vessel met its fate may never be known.

OTHER POINTS SUMMARIZED

Secretary Daniels records many other achievements of ships and personnel, including those of the naval overseas transportation service. Of the latter he says in substance:

In ten months the transportation service grew from 10 ships to a fleet of 321 cargo-carrying ships, aggregating a deadweight tonnage of 2,800,000, and numerically equaling the combined Cunard, Hamburg-American, and North German Lloyd lines at the outbreak of the war. Of this number 227 ships were mainly in operation.

From the Emergency Fleet Corporation the navy has taken over for operation ninety-four new vessels, aggregating 700,000 deadweight tons. On March 21, 1918, by order of the President 101 Dutch merchant vessels were taken over

by the Navy Department pending their allocation to the various vital trades of this country, and twenty-six of these vessels are now a part of the naval overseas fleet. This vast fleet of cargo vessels has been officered and manned through enrollment of the seagoing personnel of the American merchant marine, officers and men of the United States Navy, and the assignment after training of graduates of technical schools and training schools, developed by the navy since the United States entered the war.

There are required for the operation of this fleet at the present time 5,000 officers and 29,000 enlisted men, and adequate arrangements for future needs of personnel have been provided. The navy has risen to the exacting demands imposed upon it by the war, and it will certainly be a source of pride to the American people to know that within ten months of the time that this new force was created, in spite of the many obstacles in the way of its accomplishment, an American naval vessel, manned by an American naval crew, left an American port on the average of every five hours, carrying subsistence and equipment so vital to the American Expeditionary Force.

One of the agencies adopted during the war for more efficient naval administration is the organization and development of naval districts.

Secretary Daniels, in other passages of the foregoing report, declares that the record made abroad by the United States Navy, in co-operation with the navies of Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan, is without precedent in allied warfare. He pays a high tribute to the efficiency of Admiral Sims, Commander in Chief of American naval forces in European waters; of Rear Admiral Rodman, in command of the American battleships with the British fleet; of Vice Admiral Wilson, in France; Rear Admiral Niblack, in the Mediterranean; of Rear Admiral Dunn, in the Azores; of Rear Admiral Strauss, in charge of mining operations, and other officers in charge of various special activities.

The report tells of notable achievements in ordnance, especially the work

of the 14-inch naval guns on railway mounts on the western front, which hurled shells far behind the German lines, these mounts being designed and completed in four months. The land battery of these naval guns was manned exclusively by bluejackets under command of Rear Admiral C. P. Plunkett. The work of the Bureau of Ordnance is praised, and Admiral Earle, the Chief of the bureau, is declared "one of the ablest and fittest officers."

An account is given of the mine barrage in the North Sea, one of the outstanding anti-submarine offensive projects of the year, thus closing the North Sea, and for which 100,000 mines were manufactured and 85,000 shipped abroad. A special mine loading plant, with a capacity of more than 1,000 mines a day, was established by the Navy Department.

A star shell was developed which, when fired in the vicinity of an enemy fleet, would light it up, make ships visible, and render them easy targets with-

out disclosing the position of our own ships at night.

The Bureau of Ordnance, under the direction of Rear Admiral Earle, is stated to have met and conquered the critical shortage of high explosives which threatened to prolong the time of preparation necessary for America to smash the German military forces; this was done by the invention of TNX, a high explosive, to take the place of TNT, the change being sufficient to increase the available supply of explosives in this country to some 30,000,000 pounds.

In the future, it is stated, American dreadnoughts and battle cruisers will be armed with 16-inch guns, making these the heaviest armed vessels in the world.

Depth charges are stated to be the most effective anti-submarine weapons. American vessels were adequately armed with this new weapon.

A new type was developed and a new gun, known as the "Y" gun, was designed and built especially for firing depth charges.

[OFFICIAL]

The Brave Deeds of the Marine Corps

By JOSEPHUS DANIELS

Secretary of the Navy

THE United States Marine Corps, the efficient fighting, building, and landing force of the navy, has won imperishable glory in the fulfillment of its latest duties upon the battlefields of France, where the marines, fighting for the time under General Pershing as a part of the victorious American Army, have written a story of valor and sacrifice that will live in the brightest annals of the war. With heroism that nothing could daunt, the Marine Corps played a vital rôle in stemming the German rush on Paris, and in later days aided in the beginning of the great offensive, the freeing of Rheims, and participated in the hard fighting in Champagne, which had as its object the throwing back of the Prussian armies in the vicinity of Cambrai and St. Quentin.

With only 8,000 men engaged in the fiercest battles, the Marine Corps casualties numbered 69 officers and 1,531 enlisted men dead and 78 officers and 2,435 enlisted men wounded seriously enough to be officially reported by cablegram, to which number should be added not a few whose wounds did not incapacitate them for further fighting. However, with a casualty list that numbers nearly half the original 8,000 men who entered battle, the official reports account for only 57 United States marines who have been captured by the enemy. This includes those who were wounded far in advance of their lines and who fell into the hands of Germans while unable to resist.

Memorial Day shall henceforth have a greater, deeper significance for Amer-

ica, for it was on that day, May 30, 1918, that our country really received its first call to battle—the battle in which American troops had the honor of stopping the German drive on Paris, throwing back the Prussian hordes in attack after attack, and beginning the retreat which lasted until imperial Germany was beaten to its knees and its emissaries appealing for an armistice under the flag of truce. And to the United States marines, fighting side by side with equally brave and equally courageous men in the American Army, to that faithful sea and land force of the navy, fell the honor of taking over the lines where the blow of the Prussian would strike the hardest, the line that was nearest Paris and where, should a breach occur, all would be lost.

The world knows today that the United States marines held that line; that they blocked the advance that was rolling on toward Paris at a rate of six or seven miles a day; that they met the attack in American fashion and with American heroism; that marines and soldiers of the American Army threw back the crack guard divisions of Germany, broke their advance, and then, attacking, drove them back in the beginning of a retreat that was not to end until the "cease firing" signal sounded for the end of the world's greatest war.

ADVANCING TO BATTLE

Having reached their destination early on the morning of June 2, they disembarked, stiff and tired after a journey of more than seventy-two miles, but as they formed their lines and marched onward in the direction of the line they were to hold they were determined and cheerful. That evening the first field message from the 4th Brigade to Major Gen. Omar Bundy, commanding the 2d Division, went forward:

Second Battalion, 6th Marines, in line from Le Thiolet through Clarembauts Woods to Triangle to Lucy. Instructed to hold line. First Battalion, 6th Marines, going into line from Lucy through Hill 142. Third Battalion in support at La Voie du Chatel, which is also the post command of the 6th Marines. Sixth Machine Gun Battalion distributed at line.

Meanwhile the 5th Regiment was mov-

ing into line, machine guns were advancing, and the artillery taking its position. That night the men and officers of the marines slept in the open, many of them in a field that was green with unharvested wheat, awaiting the time when they should be summoned to battle. The next day at 5 o'clock, the afternoon of June 2, began the battle of Château-Thierry, with the Americans holding the line against the most vicious wedge of the German advance.

BATTLE OF CHATEAU-THIERRY

The advance of the Germans was across a wheat field, driving at Hill 165 and advancing in smooth columns. The United States marines, trained to keen observation upon the rifle range, nearly every one of them wearing a marksman's medal or, better, that of the sharpshooter or expert rifleman, did not wait for those gray-clad hordes to advance nearer.

Calmly they set their sights and aimed with the same precision that they had shown upon the rifle ranges at Paris Island, Mare Island, and Quantico. Incessantly their rifles cracked, and with their fire came the support of the artillery. The machine-gun fire, incessant also, began to make its inroads upon the advancing forces. Closer and closer the shrapnel burst to its targets. Caught in a seething wave of machine-gun fire, of scattering shrapnel, of accurate rifle fire, the Germans found themselves in a position in which further advance could only mean absolute suicide. The lines hesitated. They stopped. They broke for cover, while the marines raked the woods and ravines in which they had taken refuge with machine gun and rifle to prevent their making another attempt to advance by infiltrating through.

Above, a French airplane was checking up on the artillery fire. Surprised by the fact that men should deliberately set their sights, adjust their range, and then fire deliberately at an advancing foe, each man picking his target, instead of firing merely in the direction of the enemy, the aviator signaled below "Bravo!" In the rear that word was echoed again and again. The German drive on Paris had been stopped.

IN BELLEAU WOOD

For the next few days the fighting took on the character of pushing forth outposts and determining the strength of the enemy. Now, the fighting had changed. The Germans, mystified that they should have run against a stone wall of defense just when they believed that their advance would be easiest, had halted, amazed; then prepared to defend the positions they had won with all the stubbornness possible. In the black recesses of Belleau Wood the Germans had established nest after nest of machine guns. There in the jungle of matted underbrush, of vines, of heavy foliage, they had placed themselves in positions they believed impregnable. And this meant that unless they could be routed, unless they could be thrown back, the breaking of the attack of June 2 would mean nothing. There would come another drive and another. The battle of Château-Thierry was therefore not won and could not be won until Belleau Wood had been cleared of the enemy.

It was June 6 that the attack of the American troops began against that wood and its adjacent surroundings, with the wood itself and the towns of Torcy and Bouresches forming the objectives. At 5 o'clock the attack came, and there began the tremendous sacrifices which the Marine Corps gladly suffered that the German fighters might be thrown back.

FOUGHT IN AMERICAN FASHION

The marines fought strictly according to American methods—a rush, a halt, a rush again, in four-wave formation, the rear waves taking over the work of those who had fallen before them, passing over the bodies of their dead comrades and plunging ahead, until they, too, should be torn to bits. But behind those waves were more waves, and the attack went on.

"Men fell like flies," the expression is that of an officer writing from the field. Companies that had entered the battle 250 strong dwindled to 50 and 60, with a Sergeant in command; but the attack did not falter. At 9:45 o'clock that night Bouresches was taken by Lieutenant James F. Robertson and twenty-odd

men of his platoon; these soon were joined by two reinforcing platoons. Then came the enemy counterattacks, but the marines held.

In Belleau Wood the fighting had been literally from tree to tree, stronghold to stronghold; and it was a fight which must last for weeks before its accomplishment in victory. Belleau Wood was a jungle, its every rocky formation containing a German machine-gun nest, almost impossible to reach by artillery or grenade fire. There was only one way to wipe out these nests—by the bayonet. And by this method were they wiped out, for United States marines, bare chested, shouting their battle cry of "E-e-e-e y-a-a-h-h-h yip!" charged straight into the murderous fire from those guns, and won!

Out of the number that charged, in more than one instance, only one would reach the stronghold. There, with his bayonet as his only weapon, he would either kill or capture the defenders of the nest, and then swinging the gun about in its position, turn it against the remaining German positions in the forest. Such was the character of the fighting in Belleau Wood; fighting which continued until July 6, when after a short relief the invincible Americans finally were taken back to the rest billet for recuperation.

HELD THE LINE FOR DAYS

In all the history of the Marine Corps there is no such battle as that one in Belleau Wood. Fighting day and night without relief, without sleep, often without water, and for days without hot rations, the marines met and defeated the best divisions that Germany could throw into the line.

The heroism and doggedness of that battle are unparalleled. Time after time officers seeing their lines cut to pieces, seeing their men so dog tired that they even fell asleep under shellfire, hearing their wounded calling for the water they were unable to supply, seeing men fight on after they had been wounded and until they dropped unconscious; time after time officers seeing these things, believing that the very limit of human endurance had been reached, would send

back messages to their post command that their men were exhausted. But in answer to this would come the word that the line must hold, and, if possible, those lines must attack. And the lines obeyed. Without water, without food, without rest, they went forward—and forward every time to victory. Companies had been so torn and lacerated by losses that they were hardly platoons, but they held their lines and advanced them. In more than one case companies lost every officer, leaving a Sergeant and sometimes a Corporal to command, and the advance continued.

After thirteen days in this inferno of fire a captured German officer told with his dying breath of a fresh division of Germans that was about to be thrown into the battle to attempt to wrest from the marines that part of the wood they had gained. The marines, who for days had been fighting only on their sheer nerve, who had been worn out from nights of sleeplessness, from lack of rations, from terrific shell and machine-gun fire, straightened their lines and prepared for the attack. It came—as the dying German officer had predicted.

At 2 o'clock on the morning of June 13 it was launched by the Germans along the whole front. Without regard for men, the enemy hurled his forces against Bouresches and the Bois de Belleau, and sought to win back what had been taken from Germany by the Americans. The orders were that these positions must be taken at all costs; that the utmost losses in men must be endured that the Bois de Belleau and Bouresches might fall again into German hands. But the depleted lines of the marines held; the men who had fought on their nerve alone for days once more showed the mettle of which they were made. With their backs to the trees and boulders of the Bois de Belleau, with their sole shelter the scattered ruins of Bouresches, the thinning lines of the marines repelled the attack and crashed back the new division which had sought to wrest the position from them.

And so it went. Day after day, night after night, while time after time messages like the following traveled to the post command:

Losses heavy. Difficult to get runners through. Some have never returned. Morale excellent, but troops about all in. Men exhausted.

Exhausted, but holding on. And they continued to hold on in spite of every difficulty. Advancing their lines slowly day by day, the marines finally prepared their positions to such an extent that the last rush for the possession of the wood could be made. Then, on June 24, following a tremendous barrage, the struggle began.

The barrage literally tore the woods to pieces, but even its immensity could not wipe out all the nests that remained, the emplacements that were behind almost every clump of bushes, every jagged, rough group of boulders. But those that remained were wiped out by the American method of the rush and the bayonet, and in the days that followed every foot of Belleau Wood was cleared of the enemy and held by the frayed lines of the Americans.

It was, therefore, with the feeling of work well done that the depleted lines of the marines were relieved in July, that they might be filled with replacements and made ready for a grand offensive in the vicinity of Soissons, July 18. And in recognition of their sacrifice and bravery this praise was forthcoming from the French:

Army Headquarters, June 30, 1918.

In view of the brilliant conduct of the Fourth Brigade of the Second United States Division, which in a spirited fight took Bouresches and the important strong point of Bois de Belleau, stubbornly defended by a large enemy force, the General commanding the Sixth Army orders that henceforth, in all official papers, the Bois de Belleau shall be named "Bois de la Brigade de Marine."

DIVISION GENERAL DEGOUTTE,
Commanding Sixth Army.

On July 18 the marines were again called into action in the vicinity of Soissons, near Tigny and Vierzy. In the face of a murderous fire from concentrated machine guns, which contested every foot of their advance, the United States marines moved forward until the severity of their casualties necessitated that they dig in and hold the positions they had gained. Here, again, their valor called forth official praise.

Then came the battle for the St. Mihiel salient. On the night of Sept. 11 the 2d Division took over a line running from Remenauville to Limey, and on the night of Sept. 14 and the morning of Sept. 15 attacked, with two days' objectives ahead of them. Overcoming the enemy resistance, they romped through to the Rupt de Mad, a small river, crossed it on stone bridges, occupied Thiaucourt, the first day's objective, scaled the heights just beyond it, pushed on to a line running from the Zammes-Joulney Ridges to the Binvaux Forest, and there rested, with the second day's objectives occupied by 2:50 o'clock of the first day. The casualties of the division were about 1,000, of which 134 were killed. Of these, about half were marines. The captures in which the marines participated were 80 German officers, 3,200 men, ninety-odd cannon, and vast stores.

But even further honors were to befall the fighting, landing, and building force, of which the navy is justly proud. In the early part of October it became necessary for the Allies to capture the bald, jagged ridge twenty miles due east of Rheims, known as Blanc Mont Ridge. Here the armies of Germany and the Allies had clashed more than once, and attempt after attempt had been made to wrest it from German hands. It was a keystone of the German defense, the fall of which would have a far-reaching effect upon the enemy armies. To the glory of the United States marines, let it be said that they were again a part of that splendid 2d Division which swept forward in the attack which freed Blanc Mont Ridge from German hands, pushed its way down the slopes, and occupied the level around just beyond, thus assuring a victory, the full import of which can best be judged by the order of General Lejeune, following the battle:

France, Oct. 11, 1918.

Officers and Men of the 2d Division:

It is beyond my power of expression to describe fitly my admiration for your heroism. You attacked magnificently and you seized Blanc Mont Ridge, the keystone of the arch constituting the enemy's main position. You advanced beyond the ridge, breaking the enemy's lines, and you held the ground gained

with a tenacity which is unsurpassed in the annals of war.

As a direct result of your victory, the German armies east and west of Rheims are in full retreat, and by drawing on yourselves several German divisions from other parts of the front you greatly assisted the victorious advance of the allied armies between Cambrai and St. Quentin.

Your heroism and the heroism of our comrades who died on the battlefield will live in history forever, and will be emulated by the young men of our country for generations to come.

To be able to say when this war is finished, "I belonged to the 2d Division; I fought with it at the battle of Blanc Mont Ridge," will be the highest honor that can come to any man.

JOHN A. LEJEUNE,

Major General, United States Marine Corps, Commanding.

Thus it is that the United States marines have fulfilled the glorious traditions of their corps in this their latest duty as the "soldiers who go to sea." Their sharpshooting—and in one regiment 93 per cent. of the men wear the medal of a marksman, a sharpshooter, or an expert rifleman—has amazed soldiers of European armies, accustomed merely to shooting in the general direction of the enemy. Under the fiercest fire they have calmly adjusted their sights, aimed for their man, and killed him, and in bayonet attacks their advance on machine-gun nests has been irresistible.

In the official citation lists more than one American marine is credited with taking an enemy machine gun single handed, bayoneting its crew, and then turning the gun against the foe. In one battle alone, that of Belleau Wood, the citation lists bear the names of fully 500 United States marines who so distinguished themselves in battle as to call forth the official commendation of their superior officers.

More than faithful in every emergency, accepting hardships with admirable morale, proud of the honor of taking their place as shock troops for the American legions, they have fulfilled every glorious tradition of their corps, and they have given to the world a list of heroes whose names will go down to all history.

To Secretary Daniels's narrative may be added a brief account of the terms in

which the French official journal cited the 4th American Brigade under Brig. Gen. Harbord on Dec. 8.

The brigade comprised the 5th Regiment of marines, under Colonel (now Brigadier General) Wendel C. Veille; the 6th marines, under Colonel (now Brigadier General) Albertus A. Catlin, and the 6th Machine Gun Battalion, under Major Edward B. Cole. The citation says the brigade, in full battle array, was thrown on a front which the enemy was attacking violently and at once proved itself a unit of the finest quality. It crushed the enemy attack on an important point of the position, and then undertook a series of offensive operations.

"During these operations," says the citation, "thanks to the brilliant courage, vigor, dash, and tenacity of its men, who refused to be disheartened by fatigue or losses; thanks to the activity and energy of the officers, and thanks to the personal action of Brig. Gen. Harbord, the efforts of the brigade were crowned with success, realizing after

twelve days of incessant struggle an important advance over the most difficult of terrain and the capture of two support points of the highest importance, Bouresches village and the fortified wood of Belleau."

The 30th Regiment, American Infantry, under Colonel E. L. Butts, is cited as showing itself "worthy its traditions on July 15 in sustaining the chief shock of the German attack." The 38th Regiment is cited for "unshakable tenacity" the same day. Other American citations include Max Staub, Hospital Section; Lewis Kenneth of the 372d Regiment, Aviator Thomas Hitchcock of New York, and Ambulance Sections 546, 525, 626, 539, and 629.

The American Lafayette Escadrille was commended for work in Flanders. Citations also were given to Battery H, 2d Battalion of the 53d Regiment of garrison artillery, under Captain Gardner; the platoon under Lieutenant John H. Shenwel, Company B, 111th Infantry, and the platoon under Lieutenant Cedric C. Benz, Company A, 111th Infantry.

Secretary Baker on the Army's Record

Abstract of War Department Report

NEWTON D. BAKER, Secretary of War, issued his annual report on Dec. 4, 1918. He selected the battle of the Meuse as "from the viewpoint of military strategy America's greatest contribution to the successful outcome of the war," since by that attack of the American armies the Sedan-Mézières railway, the main artery of the German supply system, was cut. The entire available strength of the American Army in France, twenty-eight divisions, was in line in the second week of October, he said, making yard by yard progress against desperate enemy resistance, which finally was worn out, "and on Nov. 1 the American troops broke through." The object of the drive, the strategic conception of which included the British drive at the northern end of the railway system and the French advance in the centre, was accomplished on

Nov. 7, when the Americans entered the outskirts of Sedan, to be joined there the next day by the French.

In sketching the building up of the war army, Mr. Baker selects a few striking figures as illustrations of what each step meant and what has been accomplished. On the day the armistice was signed, he declares, more than 25 per cent. of the entire male population of the country between the ages of 18 and 31 was in the military service, the army having reached a total of 3,664,000 men, more than 2,000,000 of whom were in Europe, as compared with a strength of 189,674 in March, 1917, a week before war was declared.

To illustrate the speed of this expansion, the report cites the fact that the British Army in France had reached its high mark in the Summer of 1917, three years after the beginning of the war,

and that figure was "slightly more than 2,000,000 men." It took nineteen months for the United States to reach the same strength there, but Mr. Baker points out that during those years of battle British man power had been heavily called upon to replace casualties, while for many months the flow of American troops all went to augment the force being assembled.

UNEQUALED IN HISTORY

"No troop movement such as that of the last Summer had ever been contemplated," says the Secretary, "and no movement of any such number of persons by water such a distance and in such a time had ever occurred. The performance stands unique in the world's history. Furthermore, this performance wrought a decisive effect upon the world's history at one of its great critical junctures."

Recapitulating the total American Army casualties, 236,108 men, Mr. Baker said the deaths due to battle alone were 36,000, and that half of the wounded reported "probably suffered slight injury."

Under the heading of "Fighting Equipment for the Army," Mr. Baker gave a summary of what was accomplished in providing ordnance for the army. When the armistice was signed 30,881 complete units had been contracted for. On Nov. 1, 10,634 had been delivered, divided as follows: Trench, 5,000; light, (field guns,) 3,850; medium, 1,070; heavy, 695; railway, 19. The contracts were divided as follows: Trench, 11,700; light, 10,113; medium, 5,385; heavy, 3,472; railway, 211.

As to rifles, Mr. Baker showed that 2,137,025 of the modified Enfields had been accepted prior to Nov. 1. Browning machine-gun production was as follows: Light, 47,019; heavy, 39,546. The following cablegram was quoted to show the performance of the Browning guns in action:

Experience of 79th Division in offensive operations Sept. 25 to Oct. 21, Browning machine guns. Thirteen machine-gun companies engaged, weather conditions continuous rain and mud. * * * There was not one instance where the guns

failed to operate due to muddy and wet belts. * * * On the whole it may be said that the performance of the Browning machine gun and automatic rifle in active operation has been so satisfactory as to create an insistent demand for these weapons from machine-gun units and from division commanders.

AIRCRAFT PRODUCTION

Regarding aircraft production the Secretary showed that 3,180 De Havilland and 101 Handley-Page machines were produced in this country and 1,900 planes had been shipped to France before the armistice was signed. On the other side, 2,676 planes of service types had been provided for the American squadrons by the French Government. On Sept. 30 General Pershing had thirty-two air squadrons at the front, the first of them to be equipped with American planes having reached the battle areas in July.

Air service casualties, the report says, have been higher than in the artillery and infantry, and reports to Oct. 24 showed 128 battle fatalities and 224 by accident overseas. A total of 262 men had lost their lives in this service while in training in the United States.

The general health of the army was surprisingly good, the report shows, the death rate for all forces at home and abroad up to Aug. 30 having been at the rate of 5.9 per 1,000 per year, or little more than the civilian rate for men of the same age groups. It compares with a rate of 65 per 1,000 per year during the civil war and 26 during the Spanish war. Pneumonia caused 56 per cent. of the deaths.

There were 316,000 cases of influenza among the troops in the United States during the late Summer and Fall, and of the 20,500 deaths between Sept. 14 and Nov. 8 19,800 are ascribed to the epidemic.

In closing his report Mr. Baker paid a high tribute to the heroic achievements of our soldiers abroad, and also to the men who had given their services at home at great sacrifice without opportunity to participate in the great adventure.

The English King's Address of Thanks

Grateful Recognition for All Those Who Helped to Save the British Empire

[ADDRESS OF KING GEORGE V. NOV. 20, 1918, TO PARLIAMENT, THE COLONIES, AND DOMINIONS]

AFTER a struggle longer and far more terrible than any one could have foretold, the soil of Britain remains inviolate. Our navy has everywhere held the seas, and wherever the enemy could be brought to battle it has renewed the glories of Drake and Nelson. The incessant work it has accomplished in overcoming the hidden menace of the enemy submarines and guarding the ships that have brought food and munitions to our shores has been less conspicuous but equally essential to success. Without that work Britain might have starved, and those valiant soldiers of America, who have so much contributed to our victory, could not have found their way hither across the foam of perilous seas.

The fleet has enabled us to win the war. In fact, without the fleet the struggle could not have been maintained, for upon the command of the sea the very existence and maintenance of our land forces have from the first depended.

That we should have to wage this war on land had scarcely entered our thoughts until the storm actually broke upon us. But Belgium and France were suddenly invaded and the nation rose to the emergency. Within a year an army more than ten times the strength of that which was ready for action in August, 1914, was raised by voluntary enlistment, largely owing to the organizing genius and personal influence of Lord Kitchener, and the number of that army was afterward far more than doubled.

These new soldiers drawn from the civil population have displayed a valor equal to that of their ancestors, who have carried the flag of Britain to victory in so many lands in bygone times. Short as was their training, they have imitated and rivaled the prowess of the small but ever-famous force which, in the early weeks of the war, from Mons to the Marne fought its magnificent retreat against vastly superior numbers. Not

less prompt was the response, not less admirable the devotion to the common cause, of those splendid troops which eagerly hastened to us from the Dominions overseas, men who showed themselves more than ever to be bone of our bone, inheriting all the courage and tenacity that have made Britain great. A hundred battlefields in all parts of the world have witnessed their heroism, have been soaked with their blood, and are forever hallowed by their graves.

I shall ever remember how the Princes of India rallied to the cause, and with what ardor her soldiers sustained in many theatres of war, and under conditions the most diverse and exacting, the martial traditions of their race. Neither can I forget how the men from the crown colonies and protectorates of Great Britain, also fighting amid novel and perilous scenes, exhibited a constancy and devotion second to none.

To all these and to their commanders who, in fields so scattered and against enemies so different in Europe, Asia, and Africa, have for four years confronted the hazards, overcome the perils, and finally decided the issues of war our gratitude is most justly due. They have combined the highest military skill with unsurpassed resolution, and amid the heat of the battlefield have never been deaf to the calls of chivalry and humanity.

Particularly would I mention the names of Field Marshal Sir Douglas Haig, whose patient and indomitable leadership, ably seconded by his fellow-commanders, has been rewarded by the final rout of the enemy on the field of so much sacrifice and glory; of General Sir Edmund Allenby, who, in a campaign unique in military history, has won back for Christendom the soil for which centuries had fought and bled in vain; and of General Sir Stanley Maude and his successor, who gained, in a scene

of no less romance, the first resounding victory of the war for the allied cause.

While I mention those who have served their country till the end of the struggle, let us not forget the incomparable services of the leaders who, in the early days of the war, before fortune had begun to smile, upheld the best traditions of British arms by land and sea; of Field Marshal Lord French of Ypres, whose title recalls the scene of his undying renown, and of Admirals Lord Jellicoe and Sir David Beatty, who have for four years been the spirit and soul, as they were the successive commanders, of the fighting fleet of the empire.

Let us remember also those who belong to the most recent military arm, the keen-eyed and swift-winged knights of the air, who have given to the world a new type of daring and resourceful heroism.

So must we further acknowledge the dauntless spirit of the men of the Mercantile Marine and the fishermen who patrolled our coasts, braving all the dangers of mine and torpedo in the discharge of duty.

Let our thanks also be given to those who have toiled incessantly at home, women no less than men, in producing munitions of war, and to those who have rendered essential war service in many other ways. * * *

In this great struggle which we hope will determine for good the future of the world, it is a matter of ceaseless pride to us that we have been associated with allies whose spirit has been identical with our own, and who, amid sufferings that have in so many cases greatly exceeded ours, have devoted their united strength to the vindication of righteousness and freedom. France, whose final deliverance, achieved by one of the greatest of commanders, Marshal Foch, has been the reward of a sacrifice and endurance almost beyond compare; Belgium, devastated and held in bondage for nigh upon five years, but now restored to her liberty and her King; Italy, whose lofty spirit has at length found its national fulfillment; and our remaining allies, upon whose horizon, till lately so dark, the light of emancipation already dawns.

During the last one and a half years we are also proud to have been directly associated with the great sister Commonwealth across the ocean, the United States of America, whose resources and valor have exercised so powerful an influence in the attainment of those high ideals which were her single aim.

Now that the clouds of war are being swept from the sky, new tasks arise before us. We see more clearly some duties that have been neglected, some weaknesses that may retard our onward march. Liberal provision must be made for those whose exertions by land and sea have saved us. We have to create a better Britain, to bestow more care on the health and well-being of the people, and to ameliorate further the conditions of labor. * * *

In what spirit shall we approach these great problems? How shall we seek to achieve the victories of peace? Can we do better than remember the lessons which the years of war have taught and retain the spirit which they instilled? In these years Britain and her traditions have come to mean more to us than they had ever meant before. It became a privilege to serve her in whatever way we could; and we were all drawn by the sacredness of the cause into a comradeship which fired our zeal and nerved our efforts. This is the spirit we must try to preserve. It is on a sense of brotherhood and mutual good-will, on a common devotion to the common interests of the nation as a whole, that its future prosperity and strength must be built up. The sacrifices made, the sufferings endured, the memory of the heroes who have died that Britain may live, ought surely to ennoble our thoughts and attune our hearts to a higher sense of individual and national duty, and to a fuller realization of what the English-speaking race, dwelling upon the shores of all the oceans, may yet accomplish for mankind.

For centuries past Britain has led the world along the path of ordered freedom. Leadership may still be hers among the peoples who are seeking to follow that path. God grant to their efforts such wisdom and perseverance as shall ensure stability for the days to come.

May good-will and concord at home

strengthen our influence for concord abroad. May the morning star of peace which is now rising over a war-worn world be here and everywhere the herald

of a better day, in which the storms of strife shall have died down, and the rays of an enduring peace be shed upon all the nations.

America's Most Terrible Weapon

The Greatest Poison Gas Plant in the World
Ready for Action When the War Ended

By RICHARD BARRY

[WRITTEN IN DECEMBER, 1918, FOR THE NEW YORK TIMES AND CURRENT HISTORY MAGAZINE]

TWENTY-SIX miles from Baltimore, on the edge of the Government's vast Aberdeen ordnance proving grounds, is a 300-acre tract, fenced off even from the comparative publicity of the conventional big guns, guarded from prying eyes along every rod by soldiers with drawn bayonets. Twelve months ago it was a Maryland farm. In December, 1918, it is the largest poison gas factory on earth. It can produce, probably three or four times over, more mustard gas, phosgene, chlorine, and other noxious fumes than the intensified war output of England, France, and Germany combined. It was just completed and ready to function for the \$60,000,000 invested there when the armistice was signed on Nov. 11. Now it lies silent and idle like the great cannon along the Lorraine border, but ready to operate at a moment's notice.

The Director of the United States Chemical Warfare Service is Major Gen. William L. Sibert. The commanding officer, Colonel William H. Walker, and one of his assistants, Lieut. Col. George Cahoon, took me over the plant and initiated me into its mysteries, explained the processes of production, outlined some of the little known features of gas warfare, and indicated what an essential element in the prospective allied attack next Spring this product was to be. Formerly Colonel Walker was Professor of Chemical Engineering at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

"It is not apparent that the Germans started the war with the intention of

using poison gas," said Colonel Walker, "for they did not use it until April, 1915, and then, despite their boasted efficiency, they did not understand the effectiveness of the fiendish stuff they were using. Had they done so history might make different reading today. For instance, when they first used gas, (it was chlorine with which they started on April 22, 1915,) they waited twenty-four hours before following up with a bayonet attack, evidently fearful that the gas had not dissipated. As a matter of fact the gas dissipated within thirty-five or forty minutes after its release, though in that time it annihilated 80 per cent. of the Canadians, Turcos, and French opposing it. If the Germans had attacked within an hour they would have taken Calais that day. There was nothing to stop them.

"Another thing that makes me think they did not intend using poison gas when they began the war is that they had no proper meteorological charts of Northern France. If they had had these necessary charts they would not have wasted so much time and so much gas as they did waste. It is a fact that the prevailing winds in Northern France are about 75 per cent. from a southerly or southeasterly direction. This left the Germans only 25 per cent. of the time in which they could use gas as they did to begin with, relying on the wind to carry it across the line. Later they devised guns and mortars, but if they had begun with these methods and had made gas in sufficient quantity there can be no doubt that the war would have ended

in their favor very early. There is no doubt in my mind that their inability to make gas in sufficient quantity accounts for their halt in their last great drive last Summer.

ADOPTED BY ALLIES

"The French and English were reluctant to use gas, deeming it inhumanitarian. Our Government suffered from the same indecision in the early months of our part in the war. However, we came to it in time, just as did the French and English. But, although the English finally utilized every available facility they could command in the manufacture of toxic gases, their total production at its highest point never went above an average of thirty tons a day. The best the French could do was much less than this. Our American capacity for September and October was on an average of two hundred tons a day. These figures are not in pounds, as powder figures are usually given, but in tons. And a drop of gas, properly placed, kills or incapacitates."

"What was the German production?" I asked.

"We do not know," replied Colonel Walker, "but from available data and the estimates of military observers on the ground we do not think it was over thirty tons a day. It may have been fifty tons a day, but certainly no more."

"It was last October [1917] before the American Government decided to manufacture poison gas on a scale commensurate with the rest of our military preparations. It was November when ground was broken here, so that what you see is the work of less than a twelve-month."

CREATING A GREAT FACTORY

What I saw was a city of brick kilns, high chimneys, correlated vats in innumerable series, repeated shot towers, miles of railway, miles of elevated pipe lines, machinery of the finest type, and the most perfect installation, housed in concrete and sheet iron, built apparently for permanence. It was all only a few miles from Gunpowder Creek, where were concrete piers built in the midst of the once fine duck hunting preserves.

Gunpowder Creek runs into Chesapeake Bay, so that vessels loaded with the gases direct from the factory sailed to Havre without a stop. The Government's investment here is \$60,000,000. Elsewhere there has been spent, at various subsidiary plants, about \$12,000,000. Thus all told the United States has spent about \$72,000,000 in the manufacture of toxic gases, practically none of which have any commercial value. The basic elements are salt, sulphur, and alcohol, which, broken into component parts and chemically reunited, in some cases by means of heat, in others by means of cold, again by force of gravity, are caused to form the mustard gas, the phosgene and the phosphorus, the chlorine, &c., which have been found efficacious in warfare. For the cold processes vast refrigerators were built. These cover acres. Half a mile away were enormous boilers and hot rooms for fusing. Then curious towers of spindle steel looking like miniature Eiffel Towers, scattered about the grounds, support pipes down which, in a different process, are dropped two chemical elements which thus are forced to fuse by gravity.

Chiefly impressive, once one became accustomed to the thought that all this ingenious, costly mechanism was built to generate poison for the sole purpose of horribly maiming and frightfully killing, was the orderliness, the immensity, and the stability of the plant. The Bethlehem Steel Mills or the Bridgeport Rifle Works are no better built.

"The most remarkable thing about this plant may not be apparent as you look at it," said Colonel Cahoon. "It is the fact that when the Government started to build it there were no existing models for some of the machinery needed. That is where Colonel Walker came in. He literally invented this factory while it was in process of being built. There is nothing like it anywhere else in the world, and it had to be created and operated as we went along. The French and the British both sent their best experts to assist us, but they stayed to get pointers to take back to their own Governments. Major Auld, the chief British expert on war gas, said frankly, 'I came to teach, but I stay to learn.'

SOLDIER HEROES

When the armistice was signed there were 7,000 drafted American soldiers at work at \$30 a month; at one time they numbered 14,000. After examining the casualty records I went through the hospitals and saw the men who had been struck down by the fiendish gases while at work; some with arms and legs and trunks shriveled and scarred as by a horrible fire, some with the deep suppurations still oozing after weeks of careful nursing.

In one case a drop of mustard oil had fallen from a conduit pipe under which a soldier had walked, hitting his shoe. He wiped it off, thinking that made him safe. The next day his flesh began to peel. Now, five weeks later, his foot looks like a charred ember. Another had accidentally kicked over what he thought was an empty pipe. It contained phosphorus, which flew over his face and upper body. Now, weeks later, he is still a mass of horrible burns. Another case (one of the fatalities) was that of an officer who came in from the works to the office. He wore rubber gloves, as they all do when near the gases, but did not know he had been near enough to pick up the mustard oil. He picked up a chair and placed it in front of his desk, intending to seat himself. At that moment the telephone rang and he stepped to the wall to answer. A friend, another officer, entered and took the seat by the desk. Forty-eight hours later the second officer was dead. The first officer had accidentally rubbed mustard oil on the back of the chair. It went through the clothes and into the spine of the second.

WORKING AMID PERILS

When the figures are all finally published it may appear that no division in France has a higher percentage of casualty than was developed at the Edgewater arsenal in Baltimore (the official name of the poison gas plant) in August, 1918. That was the month of excessive heat when the gases were most volatile and when the weather made the soldiers somewhat relaxed in their vigilance to avoid accident.

During that month the hospitals were filled at the rate of three and a half per cent. of the entire force in the mustard gas plant per day, or one hundred per cent. casualty per month.

If that is the casualty which must be endured in making the stuff, can one imagine the casualty of the enemy who receives it? As to what the enemy had in prospect Colonel Walker said:

"We had been working for some time on a device whereby mustard could be transported in large containers by airplane and released over fortresses of the Metz type, and at last it was perfected, fully sixty days before the armistice was signed. Mustard has been found, for all-around purposes, to be the most effective gas used in warfare, because it advances comparatively easily and also because it is the most difficult to protect against. People used to think prussic acid was terrible. Well, the Germans discarded the use of prussic acid because it was too mild and used mustard gas instead.

COULD ANNIHILATE FORTRESSES

"Our idea was to have containers that would hold a ton of mustard gas carried over fortresses like Metz and Coblenz by plane, and released with a time fuse arranged for explosion several hundred feet above the forts. The mustard gas, being heavier than air, would then slowly settle while it also dispersed. A one-ton container could thus be made to account for perhaps an acre or more of territory, and not one living thing, not even a rat, would live through it. The planes were made and successfully demonstrated, the containers were made, and we were turning out the mustard gas in the requisite quantities in September.

"However, there were obstacles besides the physical to overcome. The allied Governments were not in favor of such wholesale gas attack by air. England was the first to accede to it, but France hesitated because of her fear of reprisals. Finally, the French Government consented, but only with the proviso that the attack would not be made until our line had advanced so that there was no chance of the gas being blown

back into French territory and until the allied command was in complete command of the air so as to insure safety from possible reprisals. These two conditions could not have been met before next Spring. It was then that we planned to release the one-ton containers over the German cities which were fortified and so became subject to attack under the laws of war.

"We would have had ready in France for such an attack thousands of tons of mustard gas. There is not the slightest doubt in my mind that we could have wiped out any German city we pleased to single out, and probably several of them, within a few hours of giving the release signal.

"It was not to be. They capitulated, and I am sure that a very big factor in that capitulation was the knowledge they certainly possessed of our gas preparations. What we were doing here was known to the German Government. They knew that when this plant got into full blast their last hope was gone. They knew that if they had been able to make gas in even half the quantity we could produce here they would have swept over

all France long ago. If there was any final argument to help them make up their minds it was our gas production.

"We closed down the day the armistice was signed. We had more than 2,500 tons waiting on the piers ready for shipment. Somehow we had been cheated of our prey, but we were content. We felt sure the gas had done its work even though most of it still lay idle in our dooryard."

Already the Baltimore plant is being dismantled. The machinery is being carefully taken apart, oiled, and wrapped and stored away—ready for the next war, should there ever be one. The parts which have come in actual contact with the gas are taken by means of tongs to the fields and buried. The gas itself will perhaps be taken to sea some day and dropped overboard. Being heavier than water, it will settle to the bottom, and if the fishes do not like it they can move elsewhere; the sea is wide. There is nothing else to do with the gas. It has no commercial value and there is enough of it, if properly liberated, to kill every human being on the American Continent—on both of them.

[OFFICIAL]

Germany's Use of Poison Gas

A British Declaration Fixing the Responsibility for Its Introduction Into the War

The first use of poison gas in modern warfare was made by the German forces near Ypres on April 22, 1915, and they used it increasingly through the following years until the Allies began to outdo them with the same weapon, toward the end of the war. On July 17, 1918, the German Wireless Bureau issued a statement that the Allies were the first of the belligerents to employ poison gas in the war and referred to "historical facts" to prove that "the idea of using poison, gas originated with the British Admiral Dundonald." The British War Office issued a reply in substance as follows:

IT may be true that Dundonald, who was born in 1775 and died in 1860, and was an expert chemist as well as a great sailor, warned the British Government in the early part of the nineteenth century that it was technically possible to produce an asphyxiating gas which could be employed in military opera-

tions. Its employment by the British Government was never seriously considered, as such a method of warfare was condemned as too inhuman. The fact that The Hague Convention of 1899, to which Germany was a party, expressly forbade the use of asphyxiating gas is sufficient evidence that the possibilities

of gas as a weapon of offense were known to all the war offices. The point is that the Allies obeyed the dictates of humanity and the rules of The Hague Convention by refraining from its use, whereas the Germans deliberately added this new horror to warfare.

The German wireless message referred to says: "It is a point of fact that poison gases were first used in the war on March 1, 1915, by the British and French, whereas the French and British Army communiqués could not announce a German attack with poison gas until April 22, 1915." The first portion of this statement is a deliberate falsehood, for which there is not the slightest vestige of justification. If it were accepted it would obviously imply that between March 1, when we are expected to believe that the mind of the German General Staff was innocent of any intention to use poison gas, and April 22, when they used it on the battlefield, the whole elaborate preparation required for the projection of gas upon a large scale was completed. The gas was invented and accumulated, the cylinders in which it was stored were manufactured and tested, the large number of men employed in projection were trained and instructed in the technicalities of the business, all within a period of eight weeks. But on April 22, at the second battle of Ypres, when the yellow-green clouds of chlorine crept slowly over from the German lines, the British and French troops were caught absolutely unprepared. They stared uncomprehendingly, and without protection, at this strange phenomenon, until they fell, choking and gasping, with blackened, agonized faces, to die without knowledge of the plague which brought them death.

In Germany, at the time, the news of this surprise, with the atrocious sufferings inflicted by it on the French and British soldiers, was greeted with delight as a new triumph for Teutonic adroitness and military science. But why, it may be asked, does the German wireless now give the specific date of March 1, 1915, as that on which the gas had already been employed by the Allies? The answer is best given in the words of Lord

French. In his report of May 3, 1915, ten days after gas was first used by the Germans, he said: "A week before the Germans used this method they announced in their official communiqué that we were making use of asphyxiating gases."

"At the time there appeared to be no reason for this astounding falsehood; but now, of course, it is obvious that it was part of the scheme. It shows they recognized its illegality and were anxious to forestall neutral, and possibly domestic, criticism." In his dispatch of June 15, 1915, Lord French said: "The brain power and thought which have evidently been at work before this unworthy method of making war reached the pitch of efficiency which has been demonstrated in its practice show that the Germans must have harbored these designs for a long time."

Since those early days the Germans have learned to their sorrow that gas is a weapon which two can use. Forced to employ it in self-defense, the Allies have done so with such effect that the Germans have had reason to regret exceedingly their departure from the rules of civilized warfare. And they have discovered that this outrage against humanity was a moral and political as well as a military blunder.

Later in the Summer of 1918 the Geneva Red Cross issued an appeal for the discontinuance of the use of asphyxiating gas by all the belligerents. The German Government replied that it had not begun making gas attacks "until long after its adversaries had been using this method of warfare." The Paris correspondent of The London Telegraph on Sept. 25 commented as follows:

A well-known French chemist has an intimate Dutch friend who is a distinguished Professor at Leyden and a staunch friend of the Allies. This Dutch professor, toward the end of 1914, wrote to the French chemist stating that the Germans were making active experiments with poisonous gases in Belgium, near the Dutch frontier. The chemist at once reported the matter to the French War Office, which refused to believe him. Every one whom he saw

scouted the idea as a mere fable. The chemist, however, worked at the subject on his own in order to discover what gases the Germans might be using. While he was experimenting, and while the military authorities were so deriding his information, the Germans suddenly began the use of poisonous gases, with, as every one knows, terrible effects.

At that moment neither in France nor in England had the question of gas as a weapon even been considered. It was, indeed, months after the Germans began the use of gas that commissions were appointed in England and France to commence the study of the question, and

more months again elapsed before we had prepared any gas at all. Finally, when we did start using gas, all we had were tear bombs, with which we tried to reply to much more dangerous gases sent over by the Germans.

The German reply to the Geneva Red Cross is thus the most cynical lie even the German Government has ever been guilty of. It is satisfactory, by the way, to learn from those who know that for a considerable time past the enemy is being paid back in his own coin, and that though late in this field of scientific barbarism we now have gases that are worse than any German gases.

The East African Campaign

Surrender of the German Forces on November 14, 1918, Marked the End of the Long Campaign

The German forces under General von Lettow-Vorbeck, operating in German East Africa, surrendered on the Chambezi River, South of Kasama, Northern Rhodesia, Nov. 14, 1918, thus ending the last phase of German control in Africa. The London Times of Nov. 21 thus reviewed the record of the four years' struggle:

THE most notable incidents in the earlier phases of the war had been an unsuccessful attempt, in November, 1914, by an Anglo-Indian force to seize Tanga from the sea, and the occupation by the Germans of a considerable area of British territory in the Kilimanjaro region. For the defense of German East Africa, a territory about twice the size of Germany, von Lettow-Vorbeck had fully 25,000 native troops and 4,000 whites.

The local forces in British East Africa—the King's African Rifles (native troops)—had been strengthened by British and Indian regiments from India and by volunteers. General Michael Tighe was in command. After the conquest of Southwest Africa by General Botha, the Union, Rhodesia co-operating, raised a force which ultimately reached 20,000 for service in East Africa, and thus eighteen months after the war began it was at last possible to undertake a British offensive. General Smuts, who on the failure of Sir H. Smith-Dorrien's health had consented to take command of the Expeditionary

Force, reached Mombasa on Feb. 19, 1916.

General Smuts adopted with little alteration the plans of General Tighe for the conquest of Kilimanjaro; their chief feature was wide turning movements, one from the north, the other from the south. The main movement began on March 7. Taveta was occupied by the southern column on March 9, and on March 11 the enemy was encountered in force in the densely forested mountain district of Latema Nek. The fight was stubborn, and lasted all through the night, but in the end the enemy was forced to retreat. In the Kahe hills, which defend the northern approach to Usambara, the enemy, on March 21, again offered determined opposition. The assailants failed to carry the position, but in the night the Germans retired. The conquest of Kilimanjaro was thus completed.

After their defeat at Kahe the main enemy force retired to Usambara, "leaving open and undefended" the road to the interior. Instead of attacking the



GERMAN EAST AFRICA, LAST OF THE GERMAN COLONIES TO SURRENDER

enemy on his own chosen ground, "which nature and art had prepared admirably for defensive purposes," General Smuts decided to strike inland toward the Central Railway, the line which runs from Dar-es-Salaam to Lake Tanganyika. General Smuts sent the Second Division, under Major General Van Deventer, southwest to cut communications between the German main force and the enemy troops in the lake region. Van Deventer reached Kondoa-Irangi, forty miles north of the railway, on April 19. Here he was held up for nearly two months, his division at one time, owing to the in-

cessant rains, being almost entirely isolated. This delay enabled von Lettow-Vorbeck to withdraw most of his troops from Usambara and concentrate 4,000 men against Van Deventer, whom he unsuccessfully attacked in May. On June 24 Van Deventer, having been reinforced, and the rains having abated, resumed his advance, and, having defeated the enemy, seized the middle section of the Central Railway.

While these operations were in progress Usambara was gradually occupied. Wilhelmstal, the capital of Usambara, was entered on June 13 and Tanga

was seized on July 7. Without waiting for the complete clearing of Usambara, General Smuts directed his main force southward on a line east of and parallel to General Van Deventer's route, his endeavor being to surround General von Lettow-Vorbeck and force a decision. In this endeavor he was unsuccessful, notwithstanding repeated efforts and a good deal of fighting. Von Lettow retreated first to Mrogoro, on the Central Railway, and then by a road the existence of which was unknown to the British, into the Uluguru Hills.

Mrogoro was occupied by General Smuts on Aug. 26. Meanwhile, General Van Deventer had turned eastward, pursuing the enemy along the railway line, eventually joining hands with Smuts. Dar-es-Salaam, the capital and chief port of the protectorate, surrendered to a naval force on Sept. 4. Its occupation enabled General Smuts by the end of October to shorten his lines of communication by over 1,000 miles. But General Smuts's troops were exhausted by six months of continuous marching and fighting, and were suffering from the ravage of dysentery, so that a pause in the operations was essential. General Smuts reconstituted his force. By the beginning of 1917 over 12,000 white troops had been sent back, their place being taken by newly raised battalions of King's African Rifles and by the Nigerian Brigade under General Cunliffe. Meantime much had been accomplished in other regions of German East Africa.

In April, 1916, Belgian columns under General Tombeur invaded the northwest portion of the German protectorate, and by the end of June Usumburu, at the north end of Tanganyika, and the whole district between that lake and Victoria Nyanza had been conquered, chiefly by the Northern Brigade, under Colonel Molitor. Tabora, the chief town in the western section of the Central Railway, was captured by the Belgians on Sept. 19. The fall of Tabora was preceded by heavy fighting, which lasted for ten days.

From the southwest German East Africa was invaded on May 25, 1916, by a force under Brig. Gen. Northey, com-

posed of Union troops, Rhodesians, and King's African Rifles. A Rhodesian column seized Bismarckburg, on Lake Tanganyika, and worked north till it joined hands with the Belgian right. General Northey's main force struck northeast along the road leading from Lake Nyasa to Iringa, a town 270 miles southeast of Tabora. General Northey defeated the chief force opposed to him on July 24 and occupied Iringa on Aug. 29. Thus, with the occupation of the southern ports of the protectorate, over two-thirds of German East Africa had been conquered by the combined operations of Generals Smuts and Northey, and the Belgians, after a most strenuous seven months' campaign.

The great distances to be covered by comparatively small bodies of troops and the enormous difficulties of supply and transport in roadless and mountainous regions, mostly covered with dense bush and traversed by many large rivers, were the chief causes of the repeated failures to corner the enemy, and of the prolongation of the campaign through 1917 and 1918. General Smuts in January, 1917, had begun a new campaign when he was called to London to attend the War Cabinet. General Hoskins then held command until May, when he was succeeded by General Van Deventer. By this time the enemy had been confined to the southeast part of the protectorate and the south central plateau of Mahenge.

A new offensive was begun in June, 1917, and was carried on relentlessly. The enemy fought desperately, and the casualties on both sides were severe. In the west General Northey's columns were aided by the Belgians, who captured Mahenge in October. On Nov. 27 one of the two enemy forces remaining in the field was caught near the Portuguese frontier and compelled to surrender, but von Lettow himself and his party succeeded (Nov. 30) in getting away into Portuguese East Africa. Here, during this year, incessantly chased, he made his way south nearly as far as the Zambezi; then, retracing his steps, he came again in September into the German protectorate, whence he made his way into Northern Rhodesia, where he surrendered.

Total Damage Caused by U-Boats

Fifteen Million Gross Tons of Shipping, With Cargoes, on the Debit Side of the Account

THE depredations of the German submarines came definitely to an end with the signing of the armistice on Nov. 11, 1918. Attacks on merchant ships had been suspended on Oct. 20, the date on which the German Government informed Spain that orders had been issued recalling all U-boats to their bases. The last sinkings of merchant craft were those of the American steamship Lucia and the Irish steamship Dundalk, both torpedoed on Oct. 19. The British battleship Britannia, torpedoed near Gibraltar on Nov. 9, was the last ship sunk by a submarine.

At the time of the recall of the U-boats the British Admiralty published this summary of the colossal account that Germany must settle for merchant ships destroyed:

BRITISH, ALLIED, AND NEUTRAL SHIPS LOST

	British.	Allied & Neutral.	Gross tons.
1914.			
Aug. & Sept....	314,000	85,947	399,947
4th quarter....	154,728	126,688	281,416
1915.			
1st quarter....	215,905	104,542	320,447
2d quarter....	223,676	156,743	380,419
3d quarter....	356,659	172,822	529,418
4th quarter....	307,139	187,234	494,373
1916.			
1st quarter....	325,237	198,958	524,195
2d quarter....	270,690	251,599	522,289
3d quarter....	284,358	307,681	592,039
4th quarter....	617,563	541,780	1,159,343
1917.			
1st quarter....	911,840	707,533	1,619,373
2d quarter....	1,361,870	875,064	2,236,934
3d quarter....	952,938	541,535	1,494,473
4th quarter....	782,889	489,954	1,272,843
1918.			
1st quarter....	607,590	449,330	1,146,920
2d quarter....	630,506	332,864	963,370
3d quarter....	510,551	381,995	892,546
	8,918,139	5,912,269	14,820,408

These figures brought the account only to the end of September. Later the British Admiralty announced the October sinkings of allied and neutral ships as totaling 177,534 tons, of which 83,952 were British. The same authorities stated on Dec. 5 that the total losses of

the world's merchant tonnage from the beginning of the war to the end of October, 1918, through belligerent action and marine risk, was 15,053,786 gross tons, of which 9,031,828 were British. On the same day Sir Eric Geddes, First Lord of the British Admiralty, stated that 5,622 British merchant ships had been sunk during the war, of which 2,475 had been sunk with their crews still on board and 3,147 had been sunk and their crews set adrift. Fishing vessels to the number of 670 had been destroyed, and more than 15,000 men in the British merchant marine had lost their lives through enemy action.

The United States bore its share of the losses. According to official figures announced by the Bureau of Navigation of the Department of Commerce, a total of 145 American passenger and merchant vessels, of 354,449 gross tons, was lost through enemy acts from the beginning of the war to the cessation of hostilities on Nov. 11. This does not include several vessels whose loss had not been established as due to acts of the enemy. In all 775 lives were lost in the destruction of the ships mentioned above. Nineteen of the 145 vessels and 67 of the 775 lives were lost through German torpedoes, mines, and gunfire prior to the entrance of the United States into the war. On Dec. 2 Secretary Lansing issued a formal statement advising American citizens to file at the State Department within thirty days from Dec. 1 information concerning losses sustained through German submarine warfare either before or after the United States entered the war.

SHIP CONSTRUCTION

According to the British Admiralty statement of Dec. 5, which placed the total of the world's shipping losses at 15,053,786 gross tons, the world's ship construction during the same period was 10,849,527 gross tons, while enemy tonnage totaling 2,392,675 was captured, so

that the net loss of allied and neutral tonnage during the war was 1,811,584.

According to a British official report the output of merchant tonnage in the United Kingdom and allied and neutral countries during the years 1915, 1916, 1917, and the quarters ended March 31, June 30, and Sept. 30, 1918, was as follows:

Period.	United Kingdom. Gross Tons.	Allied and Neutral. Gross Tons.	World. Gross Tons.
1915	650,919	551,081	1,202,000
1916	541,552	1,146,448	1,688,000
1917	1,163,474	1,774,312	2,937,786
1918.			
1st quarter..	320,280	550,037	870,317
2d quarter..	442,966	800,308	1,243,274
3d quarter..	411,395	*972,735	1,384,130

*Provisional figures.

The output for the world during the last quarter exceeded the losses from all causes by nearly half a million gross tons.

The tonnage of merchant vessels completed in United Kingdom yards and entered for service during October, 1918, compared with preceding periods, was as under:

1917.	Gross Tons.	1918.	Gross Tons.
January	48,089	January	58,568
February ...	79,451	February ...	100,038
March	118,699	March	161,674
April	69,711	April	111,533
May	69,773	May	197,274
June	109,847	June	134,159
July	83,073	July	141,948
August	102,060	August	124,675
September ..	63,150	September ..	144,772
October	148,309	October	136,100

Total 10 months to Oct. 31, 1917, 892,162.

Total 10 months to Oct. 31, 1918, 1,310,711.

Total 12 months to Oct. 31, 1917, 1,045,036.

Total 12 months to Oct. 31, 1918, 1,582,053.

In a speech at Atlantic City, Dec. 4, 1918, Charles M. Schwab, Director General of the Emergency Fleet Corporation, stated that American ship construction in November, 1918, was about 500,000 deadweight tons, and that the total for the year 1918 would be between 3,500,000 and 4,000,000 tons. Before the war the American record for one year was 400,000 deadweight tons.

The British Admiralty said on Nov. 29 that a total of about 360 U-boats had been built by Germany, and that approximately 200 of these had been destroyed in the course of the war. The

terms of the armistice originally called for the surrender of 160 German submarines, but this clause in its final form called for all such craft. The total finally surrendered proved to be only 122. On Nov. 29 the last of the U-boat fleet at Heligoland had been given up at Harwich and interned, and the crews had been put on transports and returned to Germany. Counting five submarines interned in Norwegian ports and one or more in Spain and elsewhere, the total surviving U-boat fleet at the end of the war apparently numbered less than 130.

ANTI-SUBMARINE METHODS

The accuracy of the allied methods of gaining information about the movements of enemy submarines was one of the surprising features of the war. Very few U-boats left their bases without the knowledge of the British and American naval commanders. The numbers of the vessels, the duration of their cruises, and the localities in which they were ordered to operate were known in nearly all cases. This information was transmitted daily by wireless to every ship of the Atlantic patrol fleet and to all convoys and merchant vessels.

Wireless operators at sea and ashore heard the submarines reporting in code to Germany every night, and their positions were learned by a system of reckoning the wave length. This was done so accurately that the submarine could be definitely located as closely as a mile. This assisted the allied anti-submarine patrols. They could keep the Germans on the move by remaining in waters in which they knew the U-boats were ordered to operate, and did not waste time hunting where it was unlikely that their prey was working.

HOW THE CONVOY WORKED

Details of convoy management and the proper camouflaging of grouped ships to make their destruction by undersea craft difficult were revealed at the close of hostilities by an American naval officer, who thus described the voyage of a fleet of American troopships under convoy:

"Guarded above by dirigibles, hydroplanes and anchored balloons, and on the surface by a fleet of patrol boats as well

as our ocean escort, we proceeded, and America soon dropped below the western horizon. At sunset we were well out to sea.

"It is not hard to see why the convoy system was effective. Take the case of a convoy of twenty-five ships, (seventy-two is the largest number I've heard of in one convoy; our mate told me of being caught in a seventy-two-ship convoy in a sailing ship in the Bay of Biscay.) When these ships went in convoy, instead of there being twenty-five different units, scattered all over the 'zone' for the U-boats to find, there was only one. That is, the enemy had only one chance of meeting a ship where he had twenty-five before. And if he did meet the convoy he found it usually with a naval escort, whose sole business was sinking submarines. He found, too, twenty-five lookouts on watch for him, twenty-five sets of guns ready for him, where there were but one each before. If the enemy showed himself to a convoy and its escort, the odds were that he was due for a quick trip to the bottom.

"The usual convoy formation was in columns in a rough square. This was the most compact, and the inside ships were practically immune from attack. The escorts circled the convoy, if necessary, and the outside ships concentrated their fire on any submarine that appeared. Convoys were made up at different speeds, and even the rustiest old tramps were provided for in a six-knot class.

"It was remarkable what a snappy escort commander could do with his charges. After a day or two together he had them manoeuvring in position like a second grand fleet; zigzagging 'dark' through a black night, not a ray of light showing anywhere if they were in the danger zone or a tin fish was reported near.

STRANGE CAMOUFLAGE PATTERNS

"The war brought no stranger spectacle than that of a convoy of steamships plowing along through the middle of the ocean streaked and bespotted indiscriminately with every color of the rainbow in a way more bizarre than the

wildest dreams of a sailor's first night ashore.

"The effect of good camouflage was remarkable. I have often looked at a fellow-ship in the convoy on our quarter on exactly the same courses we were, but on account of her camouflage she appeared to be making right for us on a course at least forty-five degrees different from the one she was actually steering.

"The deception was remarkable even under such conditions as these, and of course a U-boat, with its hasty limited observation, was much more likely to be fooled.

"Each nation seemed to have a characteristic type of camouflage, and after a little practice you could usually spot a ship's nationality by her style of camouflage long before you could make out her ensign."

U-BOAT BRUTALITY

Lieutenant Fulcher, one of two American officers captured by the Deutschland when it sunk the American cargo ship Ticonderoga in mid-Atlantic, Sept. 30, 1918, thus described his experiences:

"The first few shots from the U-boat badly wounded the Captain of the Ticonderoga, killed the gun crew, and set the ship afire. The decks were quickly littered with dead. A British cruiser opened fire, whereupon the U-boat submerged. We managed to get the fire extinguished and to lower the boats, but in the excitement and confusion most of the poor fellows aboard were drowned. The U-boat again attacked us, and we kept up fire until we realized that the ship was sinking and it was useless to continue. We then decided to surrender."

Although Lieutenant Fulcher was wounded and his thigh bone was exposed, he took a pillowslip and waved it in place of a white flag. The U-boat came alongside and he was taken aboard with another officer. The commander of the submarine, holding a revolver in his hand, asked the Lieutenant where his chief gunner was.

"I told him all the gunners were killed," added Lieutenant Fulcher. "A member of the crew who knew German was on a raft at the time, but the com-

mander ignored his plea for help. 'God will save him,' was all he said, and then left him to his fate.

"A doctor removed my blood-stained clothing, and a drink of brandy was given to me. After I recovered a little I was closely interrogated. They asked questions about our convoy and about the Americans generally. I was specially asked why we in the United States call the Germans Huns.

"On the twelfth day after the sinking of the Ticonderoga we met a Norwegian ship bound from New York for Australia. The Germans captured her and transferred all her provisions to the U-boat. At 10 o'clock the next morning the ship was sunk. The Germans left the crew to their fate 1,000 miles from land.

"Two days afterward we sighted an English sailing ship. English cruisers came up, however, and we submerged. Shells from the English ships came so near us that we could feel the submarine tremble. Two days passed and an English ship was again encountered. This time one torpedo and eighty-three shots were fired at her, but she was not caught.

"On Oct. 25 all the U-boats were called back, and in twenty-five days we were at Kiel. I was there put aboard the Prince Henry, and was told a little later that if I liked I could have passage to England on the U-boat which captured me. We went to Heligoland to make up the flotilla and I arrived at Harwich today, (Nov. 25.) I am very glad to have come through so many adventures safely."

NO MORE WOODEN SHIPS

From a letter written by Charles A. Piez and made public on Nov. 29, it developed that the Shipping Board wished either to sell 150 wooden ships abroad or cancel the contracts for them. Mr. Piez wrote in part:

The limitations which the Board of Trustees has imposed on the construction of additional wooden vessels have grown, first, out of the fact that we have not received authorization for further expenditures from Congress, and, second, out of the fact that all the wooden vessels and all the steel vessels contracted

for on the Great Lakes are below 4,000 deadweight tons in capacity and that we will have, upon the completion of our wooden ship and Great Lakes program, over 1,100 small vessels—altogether too many to serve the very limited needs which we have for this class of vessels in normal times. The operating division of the Emergency Fleet Corporation has pronounced the wooden steamers as good emergency vessels, but as rather unprofitable investments under competitive conditions. We are at present engaged in an endeavor to dispose of a part of our present program to foreign buyers.

GOVERNMENT SHIP PURCHASE

Government ownership of greatly increased ocean transport facilities was foreshadowed in a statement by the United States Shipping Board Nov. 26. The official announcement was as follows:

Announcement was made at the Shipping Board that the International Mercantile Marine Corporation had today been advised of the Government's disinclination to give its approval to the proposed transfer to a British syndicate of the American ownership which has for years been vested in the International Mercantile Marine Corporation of the latter's vessels now under British registry.

Bainbridge Colby of the Shipping Board stated that an offer by a British syndicate to acquire from the International Mercantile Marine Corporation the tonnage in question had been under consideration for some time. The offer was expressly conditioned upon its approval by both the United States and British Governments.

The vessels immediately concerned in the syndicate's offer are approximately eighty-five in number, and aggregate 730,000 gross tons, or, in their deadweight equivalent, about 1,000,000 tons. They include some of the most important vessels now engaged in transatlantic service, such as the Olympic, and many other vessels of large type and familiar names.

The Government has announced its willingness to take over the ownership of these vessels upon the terms of the British offer, which is considered a fair price for tonnage of this exceptional character. Notification has been sent to the International Mercantile Marine Corporation of the Government's decision.

The negotiations for the sale by the International Mercantile Marine of its British assets had been abruptly halted Nov. 19 at the request of the United States Government, which did not care

to have the control of this fleet of vessels pass into British hands under existing conditions. While no statement was made as to the figure at which the Gov-

ernment had decided to take over the vessels, the unofficial understanding was that they had been offered to the British syndicate for about \$90,000,000.

Diary of the Chief Events of the War

Birdseye View of the Great Conflict

[A detailed chronology of the war, month by month, giving dates of minor as well as major events, has appeared in these pages in the successive monthly periods.]

1914

June 28—Francis Ferdinand shot at Serajevo.
 July 5—Kaiser's War Council at Potsdam.
 July 23—Austro-Hungarian note to Serbia.
 July 28—Austria declared war on Serbia.
 July 31—State of war in Germany.
 Aug. 1—Germany declared war on Russia.
 Aug. 2—German ultimatum to Belgium.
 Aug. 3—Germany declared war on France.
 Aug. 4—Great Britain declared war on Germany.
 Aug. 10—France declared war on Austria.
 Aug. 12—Great Britain declared war on Austria.
 Aug. 15—Fall of Liège.
 Aug. 16—British Army landed in France; Russian advance into East Prussia.
 Aug. 20—Germans occupied Brussels.
 Aug. 23—Japan declared war on Germany.
 Aug. 24—Fall of Namur.
 Aug. 25—Sack of Louvain.
 Aug. 27—German victory of Tannenberg.
 Aug. 28—British victory in the Bight.
 Aug. 29—New Zealanders in Samoa.
 Sept. 2—Russians took Lemberg.
 Sept. 3—Paris Government at Bordeaux.
 Sept. 4—Pact of London signed.
 Sept. 5—End of retreat from Mons.
 Sept. 6—First Marne battle begun.
 Sept. 15—First Aisne battle begun.
 Sept. 16—Russians evacuated East Prussia.
 Sept. 23—First British air raid in Germany.
 Oct. 9—Fall of Antwerp.
 Oct. 13—Belgian Government at Havre.
 Oct. 20—First battle of Ypres begun.
 Nov. 1—Naval action off Coronel.
 Nov. 5—Great Britain declared war on Turkey.
 Nov. 7—Fall of Tsing-tao.
 Nov. 10—Emden sunk.
 Nov. 21—British occupied Basra.
 Dec. 2—Austrians in Belgrade.
 Dec. 8—Naval battle off the Falklands.
 Dec. 14—Serbians retook Belgrade.
 Dec. 16—Germans bombarded W. Hartelpool.
 Dec. 18—Hussein Kamel, Sultan of Egypt.
 Dec. 24—First air raid on England.

1915

Jan. 24—Naval battle off Dogger Bank.
 Feb. 2—Turks defeated on Suez Canal.
 Feb. 18—U-boat "blockade" of England.

Feb. 25—Allied fleet attacked Dardanelles.
 March 10—British captured Neuve Chapelle.
 March 22—Russians took Przemyśl.
 April 22—Second battle of Ypres begun. First gas attack by Germans.
 April 25—Allied landing in Gallipoli.
 May 3—Battle of the Dunajec.
 May 6—Battle at Krithia, Gallipoli.
 May 7—Lusitania torpedoed.
 May 8—Germans occupied Libau.
 May 11—German repulse at Ypres.
 May 12—General Botha occupied Windhuk, (Africa).
 May 16—Russian retreat to the San.
 May 23—Italy declared war on Austria.
 May 25—British Coalition Cabinet formed.
 June 2—Italians crossed Isonzo.
 June 3—Russians evacuated Przemyśl.
 June 22—Austro-Germans recaptured Lemberg.
 July 2—Pommern sunk in Baltic.
 July 9—German Southwest Africa conquered.
 July 24—Nasiriyeh, on Euphrates, taken.
 Aug. 4—Fall of Warsaw.
 Aug. 5—Fall of Ivangorod.
 Aug. 6—New landing at Suvla Bay. Germans took Warsaw.
 Aug. 8—General Birdwood's advance at Anzac.
 Aug. 17—Fall of Kovno.
 Aug. 18—Russian victory in Riga Gulf.
 Aug. 19—Fall of Novo-Georgievsk.
 Aug. 21—Cotton declared contraband.
 Aug. 25—Fall of Brest-Litovsk.
 Sept. 1—General Alexeieff as Chief of Staff.
 Sept. 2—Fall of Grodno.
 Sept. 5—Czar as Generalissimo.
 Sept. 7—Russian victory near Tarnopol.
 Sept. 18—Fall of Vilna.
 Sept. 21—Russian retreat ended.
 Sept. 25—Battle of Loos and Champagne.
 Sept. 28—Victory at Kut-el-Amara.
 Oct. 4—Russian ultimatum to Bulgaria.
 Oct. 5—Allied landing at Saloniki.
 Oct. 6—Austro-German invasion of Serbia.
 Oct. 9—Belgrade occupied.
 Oct. 14—Bulgaria at war with Serbia.
 Oct. 17—Allied note to Greece.
 Oct. 22—Bulgarians occupy Uskub.
 Oct. 28—M. Briand French Premier.
 Nov. 5—Fall of Nish.
 Nov. 22—Battle of Ctesiphon.
 Nov. 29—British withdrew from Ctesiphon.
 Dec. 2—Fall of Monastir.

Dec. 3—General Townshend at Kut.
 Dec. 9—Allied retreat in Macedonia.
 Dec. 13—Saloniki lines fortified.
 Dec. 15—Haig British Commander in Chief.
 Dec. 19—Withdrawal from Gallipoli.
 Dec. 25—Turkish defeat at Kut.

1916

Jan. 8—Gallipoli evacuation complete.
 Jan. 13—Fall of Cettigne.
 Feb. 9—General Smuts appointed to East Africa.
 Feb. 16—Russians entered Erzerum.
 Feb. 18—German Kamerun conquered.
 Feb. 21—Battle of Verdun begun.
 Feb. 24—Germans took Fort Douaumont.
 March 16—Admiral von Tirpitz dismissed.
 April 9—German assault at Verdun.
 April 17—Russians entered Trebizond.
 April 24—Rebellion in Ireland.
 April 29—Fall of Kut-el-Amara.
 May 24—British Conscription bill passed.
 May 31—Battle of Jutland.
 June 4—General Brusiloff's offensive.
 June 5—Lord Kitchener lost at sea.
 June 14—Allied Economic Conference in Paris.
 June 21—Mecca taken by Grand Sherif.
 July 1—Somme battle begun.
 July 25—Russians occupied Erzincan.
 Aug. 6—Italian offensive on Isonzo.
 Aug. 9—Gorizia taken by Italians.
 Aug. 10—Russians at Stanislaw.
 Aug. 27—Rumania entered the war.
 Aug. 29—Hindenburg Chief of Staff.
 Sept. 15—First use of "tanks" by British in battle of the Somme.
 Sept. 26—British took Thiepval and Combles.
 Oct. 10—Allied ultimatum to Greece.
 Nov. 1—Italian advance on Carso.
 Nov. 13—British victory on the Ancre.
 Nov. 18—Serbians and French took Monastir.
 Nov. 21—Charles I. succeeds Francis Joseph.
 Nov. 29—Grand Fleet under Sir D. Beatty.
 Dec. 1—Anti-allied riot in Athens.
 Dec. 5—Resignation of Mr. Asquith.
 Dec. 6—Germans entered Bucharest.
 Dec. 7—Mr. Lloyd George Prime Minister.
 Dec. 12—German "peace proposals."
 Dec. 15—French victory at Verdun.
 Dec. 20—President Wilson's peace note.

1917

Jan. 1—Turkey denounced Berlin Treaty.
 Feb. 1—"Unrestricted" U-boat war begun.
 Feb. 3—America broke with Germany.
 Feb. 24—British recaptured Kut-el-Amara.
 March 11—British entered Bagdad.
 March 12—Revolution in Russia.
 March 15—Abdication of the Czar.
 March 18—British entered Péronne.
 March 21—First British Imperial War Cabinet.
 April 6—America declared war on Germany.
 April 9—Battle of Vimy Ridge begun.
 May 4—French took Craonne.
 May 14—New Italian offensive.
 May 15—General Pétain French Commander in Chief.

May 18—Selective draft law passed in United States.
 June 7—British victory at Messines Ridge.
 June 12—Abdication of King Constantine.
 June 26—First American troops in France.
 June 29—General Allenby commander in Egypt.
 July 1—Last Russian offensive begun.
 July 14—Bethmann Hollweg dismissed.
 July 17—British Royal House styled "Wind-sor."
 July 19—Reichstag "peace" resolution.
 July 21—Kerensky in power at Petrograd.
 July 24—Russian defeat in Galicia.
 July 31—Great allied attack around Ypres.
 Aug. 29—President Wilson's note to the Pope.
 Sept. 4—Germans occupied Riga.
 Sept. 15—Russian Republic proclaimed.
 Sept. 28—British victory at Ramadieh.
 Oct. 9—Allied attack in Flanders.
 Oct. 24—Italian defeat at Caporetto.
 Oct. 29—Fall of Udine.
 Oct. 30—Chancellor Michaelis dismissed.
 Oct. 31—British captured Beersheba.
 Nov. 1—German retreat on Chemin des Dames. Hertling German Chancellor.
 Nov. 4—British troops in Italy.
 Nov. 6—British stormed Passchendaele Ridge.
 Nov. 7—Lenine and Trotzky in power; Bolshevik coup d'état in Russia.
 Nov. 9—Italian stand on the Piave.
 Nov. 16—Clemenceau Ministry.
 Nov. 17—British in Jaffa.
 Nov. 18—General Maude's death in Mesopotamia.
 Nov. 20—British victory at Cambrai.
 Nov. 29—First plenary session of Interallied War Council.
 Nov. 30—German success at Cambrai.
 Dec. 6—Armistice on Russian front.
 Dec. 10—British enter Jerusalem.
 Dec. 22—Brest-Litovsk Conference opened.
 Dec. 26—Sir R. Wemyss First Sea Lord.

1918

Jan. 8—President Wilson's fourteen points.
 Jan. 20—Breslau sunk; Goeben damaged.
 Feb. 1—Germany recognized Ukraine.
 Feb. 9—Ukraine peace of Brest-Litovsk.
 Feb. 18—German invasion of Russia.
 Feb. 21—British capture Jericho.
 Feb. 24—Turks recover Trebizond.
 Feb. 25—Germans at Reval.
 March 3—Russian peace of Brest-Litovsk.
 March 7—German peace with Finland.
 March 11—Turks recover Erzerum.
 March 13—Germans at Odessa.
 March 14—Brest-Litovsk Treaty ratified at Moscow.
 March 21—German offensive in France.
 March 28—First long-distance bombardment of Paris.
 March 24—Bapaume and Péronne lost.
 March 28—General Foch made allied Generalissimo.
 April 5—Allied landing at Vladivostok.
 April 11—Armentières lost.

- April 13—Turks occupied Batum.
 April 22—Naval raid on Zeebrugge and Ostend.
 April 24—Battle for Amiens.
 April 26—Kemmel Hill lost.
 April 27—Turks occupied Kars.
 April 30—Germans at Viborg.
 May 1—Germans at Sebastopol.
 May 7—Rumanian peace of Bucharest.
 May 9—Second raid on Ostend.
 May 27—Second German offensive.
 May 29—Soissons lost; Rhelms held.
 May 31—Germans reached Marne.
 June 1—Attacks toward Paris held.
 June 9—New German assault.
 June 15—Austrian offensive in Italy.
 June 23—Great Austrian defeat.
 July 2—One million Americans are in France.
 July 15—Last German offensive. Second Marne battle begun.
 July 16—Ex-Czar shot at Ekaterinburg.
 July 18—General Foch's counterattack. Victorious Franco-American offensive on the Marne and Aisne.
 July 20—Germans recrossed the Marne.
 Aug. 2—Soissons recovered.
 Aug. 8—British attack at Amiens.
 Aug. 29—Bapaume and Noyon regained.
 Sept. 1—Péronne recovered.
 Sept. 2—Drocourt-Quéant line breached.
 Sept. 12—American attack at St. Mihiel.
 Sept. 15—Austrian peace note.
 Sept. 17—New Macedonian offensive.
 Sept. 25—Bulgaria proposed armistice.
 Sept. 27—Hindenburg line broken.
 Sept. 29—Bulgaria surrendered.
 Sept. 30—Fall of Damascus. Chancellor Hertling resigns.
 Oct. 1—St. Quentin regained.
 Oct. 4—Abdication of King Ferdinand.
 Oct. 9—Cambrai regained.
 Oct. 13—French recovered Laon.
 Oct. 14—British troops at Irkutsk.
 Oct. 15—British in Homs.
 Oct. 17—Ostend, Lille, Douai regained.
 Oct. 19—Bruges reoccupied.
 Oct. 20—Belgian coast clear.
 Oct. 25—Ludendorff resigned.
 Oct. 26—Aleppo fell to the Allies.
 Oct. 27—Austria sued for peace.
 Oct. 28—Italians crossed Piave.
 Oct. 29—Serbians reached the Danube.
 Oct. 30—Turkey granted armistice.
 Nov. 1—Versailles Conference opened.
 Nov. 2—British at Valenciennes.
 Nov. 3—Austria surrenders. Kiel mutiny.
 Nov. 4—Versailles armistice agreement.
 Nov. 5—Armistice powers for Marshal Foch. Mr. Wilson's last note to Germany.
 Nov. 6—Americans reached Sedan.
 Nov. 7—Bavarian Republic proclaimed.
 Nov. 9—Foch received German envoys. Abdication of the Kaiser. Chancellor Prince Max resigned. Berlin revolution.
 Nov. 10—Kaiser's flight to Holland. British at Mons.
 Nov. 11—Armistice terms accepted by Germany.

Chronology of American Operations

General March's Official Record

GENERAL MARCH, American Chief of Staff, appended the following chronology to his annual report to Secretary Baker, made public Dec. 5, 1918. It is a complete official summary of the chief operations of the United States Army in France:

1918.

- April 28-29—A sector in the vicinity of Breteuil, northwest of Montdidier, was occupied by the First Division.
 May 28—Cantigny was captured by the First Division. A detachment of our troops, reinforced by French artillery, successfully attacked the enemy on a front of about 2,200 yards. We occupied Cantigny, captured some 200 prisoners, and inflicted severe losses on the enemy.
 June 10—The Second Division attacked in Bois de Belleau, advancing the line 900 yards on a front of $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles, capturing 300 prisoners, 30 machine guns, 4 trench mortars, and stores of small arms, ammunition, and equipment. Held all of Hill

204 down to the village on the northeast slope, thus preventing the enemy from concentrating his forces in the northern part of Château-Thierry.

- June 11—The Second Division continued its advance in the Bois de Belleau, capturing more prisoners and machine guns and two 77 mm. fieldpieces.

Our aviators executed their first bombing raid, dropping numerous bombs on the railway station at Dommary-Baroncourt, northwest of Metz. All of our planes returned in safety.

The artillery of the Second Division shelled the enemy in their areas, preventing concentration near Torcy, Monthiér, Hill 128, and La Gonetrie farm. It discovered and dispersed a group of 210 machine guns in the wood south of Etrepilly. The Second Division captured the last of the German positions in the Bois de Belleau, taking 50 prisoners, machine guns, and trench mortars.

- July 18—French and American troops advanced under the cover of a heavy storm on the front between Soissons and

Château-Thierry. The greatest advance was in the northern part of the sector, where a depth of 5 miles was attained, and we reached the heights southwest of Soissons, dominating the railroad and highways.

July 24—The advance of the Franco-American forces continued, and in the evening the line ran east of Buzancy to Tigny, to Hartennes, Grand Rozoy, Oulchy-le-Château, Armentières, Coiney, Courpoll, and then joined the old line at Jaulgonne. West of Rheims Marfaux was retaken, and the line ran from Aubilly, through Mézy, and joined the old line at Coulommès.

July 25—The line ran from the Ourcq to the Marne, where the allied troops advanced 6 kilometers in the centre and 3 to 4 kilometers on the flanks. The line in the evening ran from Armentières to Bruyères, the eastern edge of the Bois de la Tournelle, the eastern edge of Beuvardes, the eastern edge of Le Charnel, the crossroads at Gros Chêne, la Boulangère, the northern edge of Treloup, Chassins.

July 26—The line ran: Nanteuil, Notre Dames, Hill 123, Hill 118, la Misère, Hill 100, southwestern part of Bois de la Tournelle, Hill 111, Le Charnel. Hard fighting continued all day and the French and Americans steadily advanced on Fère.

July 27—The Forty-second Division tried to cross the Ourcq, but was driven back by heavy artillery fire.

July 28—The Forty-second Division renewed the assault, crossed the river, and after vigorous fighting took Seringes-et-Nesles, Nesles, and Sergy.

The Twenty-eighth Division held the line about 1 kilometer north of the Ourcq. During the day slow progress was made, the enemy slowly falling back after bitter rearguard action.

July 29—Franco-American troops advanced 3 kilometers from Oulchy to Villers Agron, and Bougneux, Saponay, Seringes, Nesles, and Clerges were included within our lines.

July 30—Our pressure continued on the right bank of the Ourcq. The railroad station at Fère and Cayenne Farm remained in our possession. We lost Seringes-et-Nesles, but reoccupied Sergy, Hill 312, and the woods 8 kilometers north of Ronchères.

July 31—The Twenty-eighth Division retook Seringes-et-Nesles. The Thirty-second Division attacked in Crimpottes Woods with success; the woods were taken, and troops advanced to Clerges. German counterattacks were brilliantly repulsed with the bayonet, and an immense amount of material and equipment was taken from the enemy.

Aug. 3—After continuous fighting late in the evening Soissons was taken, and a line

extending along the Vesle to between Braisne and Bazoches was being consolidated. South of the Aisne our troops drove back the enemy rear guard. Acting with the Fourth Division, the Thirty-second Division reached a line from Ville Savoye to a point just north of St. Gilles.

Aug. 4—A large enemy patrol attacked in the vicinity of Coulées, but was driven off by a combat group of the Fifth Division, which had been reinforced. Our troops were very active in patrolling, having sent out over seven reconnoissances, combat, and ambush patrols.

The Thirty-second Division took Fismes. In an eight-day battle this division forced the passage of the Ourcq, took prisoners from six enemy divisions, met, routed, and decimated a crack division of the Prussian Guards, a Bavarian division, and one other enemy division, and drove the enemy line back for 16 kilometers.

Aug. 6—The Twenty-eighth Division launched an attack the objective of which was the north bank of the Vesle. The attack was met by exceedingly heavy machine-gun and artillery fire. On the right our troops succeeded in crossing the river and advancing to the highway which runs from Rheims to Soissons. On the left the advance was held up by the enemy's fire.

Aug. 7—The units on the left advanced across the river and occupied the railroad lines on the north bank. The casualties resulting from this operation were considerable. A violent enemy counterattack was completely repulsed, and a number of prisoners and machine guns were left in our hands.

Aug. 8—As a result of successful operations on the evening of Aug. 8, 11 companies of infantry and some machine-gun detachments of the Twenty-eighth Division reached the north bank of the Vesle.

Aug. 10—The Twenty-eighth Division launched an attack in Fismette. A creeping barrage moved ahead of them. They made some progress, but were soon exposed to flanking fire from both the east and the west and were forced to fall back into Fismette. The position here was very difficult. Flanking machine-gun fire came from both sides and heavy casualties were reported. A box barrage was placed around the town and ammunition was sent up. The town was held by one battalion, with one machine-gun platoon, which received orders to hold the position at all cost.

Aug. 17—After strong artillery preparation the infantry of the Fifth Division captured the village of Frapelle and consolidated the lines north of the road running into the town from the southeast.

Aug. 19—The enemy continued shelling Frapelle positions and the artillery of the Fifth Division replied actively.

Aug. 21—The Fifth Division repulsed hostile

attack with heavy loss to the enemy and with no casualties to ourselves.

The Thirty-second Division, acting with the Tenth French Army, advanced to and held Juvigny.

The Seventy-seventh Division cleared the small wood between the Vesle and the railroad west of Château du Diable.

Sept. 3—During the five days prior to Sept. 3 the Thirty-second Division made daily advances against the enemy, gaining 6 kilometers through very difficult terrain and against violent opposition. It captured 11 officers and 920 enlisted men. A large amount of guns and munitions was captured. A patrol of the Seventy-seventh Division penetrated to Bazoches.

Sept. 5—French and American units advanced in the Oise-Rhems area as far as Condé. Strong patrols of the Seventy-seventh Division were pushed forward north of the Vesle and were encountered by machine-gun resistance. Other casualties were slight.

The Twenty-eighth Division crossed the Vesle in force and pursued the enemy to the north.

Sept. 6—The artillery of the Twenty-eighth Division directed harassing and destructive fire on the Aisne bridges, while the enemy harassed the villages in our rear areas, using a great number of gas shells.

Sept. 7—The Twenty-eighth Division repulsed two enemy counterattacks. The Seventy-seventh Division drove the enemy out of La Cendière Farm and passed the Aisne Canal.

Sept. 12—After four hours' bombardment our troops advanced on the south and west flanks of the St. Mihiel salient at 5 A. M. By 7:30 A. M. the forces operating on the south had reached the southern edge of the Bois Jull, the Quart de Réserve, and the northern edge of the Bois de Mort Mare. By noon they had reached Essey and Vieville and the army operating in the difficult ground in the west had captured Les Eparges. At 6 P. M. the troops had reached a point one kilometer east of Senzey and had taken St. Remy and Combres. During the night the troops on the western flank of the salient advanced 5 miles in five hours, reaching Vigneulles by 3 A. M.

Sept. 14—There was a general advance along the entire line, and the American Army established itself on the following front: Manheulles, Fresnes, Pintheville, St. Hilaire, Doncourt, northeast of Woel, south end of the Etang de Lachaussée, Vandières, and across the Moselle at Champey.

Sept. 17—American troops advanced along the Moselle within 300 yards of Paguy.

Sept. 18—The Twenty-sixth Division made two raids during the night. One against St. Hilaire was without result, as the enemy had retired; the other against the

Bois de Warville resulted in the capture of 15 prisoners.

Sept. 19—The Ninety-second Division repulsed an attempted enemy raid in the St. Die sector.

Sept. 20—The Ninety-second Division repulsed two enemy raids in the region of Lesseux.

Sept. 26—The First Army attacked northwest of Verdun on a front of 20 miles and penetrated to an average depth of 7 miles.

Sept. 27—The One Hundred and Seventh Regiment of the Twenty-seventh Division attacked east of Bellicourt and attained its objectives.

Sept. 29—In the Argonne the Americans met with furious resistance. Their losses were heavy, and they were unable to do more than hold their own.

Sept. 30—The Twenty-seventh and Thirtieth Divisions took prisoners north of St. Quentin totaling 210 officers and more than 1,200 men.

Oct. 1—The Twenty-eighth Division repulsed a hostile counterattack on the entire divisional front in the Aire Valley, with very heavy losses to the enemy.

Oct. 3—The Second Division, operating with the Fourth French Army, made an advance of 2 kilometers, reaching Médéah Farm in the afternoon. In the evening the Second Division advanced about 5 kilometers, and their line ran from Médéah Farm southwest along the road to Blanc Mont. They captured 1,000 prisoners, and casualties were estimated at 500.

Oct. 4—The First Division attacked on both sides of Exermont, and made progress in spite of strong opposition from the enemy, who resisted with machine guns in organized opposition. Approximately 300 prisoners were taken, and our casualties were 1,500.

Oct. 5—The First Division captured Ariélal Farm, and the line was advanced 400 yards beyond. The Sixth Division repulsed a large enemy raid on Sondernach.

Oct. 7—A brigade of the Eighty-second Division advanced 7 kilometers, occupying Hill 223, north of Chatel Chéhéry; 46 prisoners were captured, including 1 officer. Our casualties were light. Later the enemy counterattacked and occupied Hill 223, north of Chatel Chéhéry.

Oct. 8—The Sixty-ninth Brigade of the Thirtieth Division attacked at 5 A. M. over a front of 5,000 yards, gained all first objectives by 9 A. M., and second objectives by noon. Fifty officers, 1,500 men, and four 101-millimeter guns were taken.

Oct. 8-9—The Second Corps advanced about 7 miles on a front of 4,000 yards and captured about 2,000 prisoners and 30 guns.

Oct. 9—In spite of strong resistance the First Division advanced in the sector east of Fléville and captured 230 prisoners.

The Thirty-third Division, operating with the Seventeenth French Army Corps, attacked early in the morning north of

Consenoye and reached its final objective about 9 A. M. About 650 prisoners were taken.

Oct. 10—The First Corps reached Cornay-La Besogne Ridge and passed Malassise Farm, east of Grand Ham. The Sixtieth Brigade of the Thirtieth Division advanced 6 kilometers, reaching the Selle River, and held the St. Benin-St. Souplet-La Hale-Menneresse line. Up to the evening of the 9th, 50 officers, 1,800 men, and 32 guns were captured.

Oct. 12—The Fourth Division repulsed two counterattacks by machine-gun fire, with severe loss to the enemy.

Oct. 13—An attack on Grandpré this morning met very heavy machine-gun fire, and troops of the Second Corps were finally forced to retire south of the Aire. A hostile counterattack at 8 P. M. south of Landres-et-St. Georges was repulsed.

The Eighty-first Division repulsed an enemy raid in St. Die sector.

The Seventy-seventh Division took Grandpré.

Oct. 17—The Twenty-ninth Division advanced to the summit of Bois de la Grand Montagne, east of the Meuse.

The Forty-second Division took Côte de Châtillon.

The Second Battalion of the Seventy-sixth Division reached the northern edge of Bois des Loges, west of Champigneulle.

In an attack on a 4,000-yard front from St. Souplet to Molain our troops advanced 3,000 yards against very stiff resistance. All counterattacks repulsed. Prisoners taken were estimated at 2,500.

Oct. 19—The Thirtieth Division attacked with the British at dawn and advanced 2,000 yards. Prisoners captured since the morning of the 17th totaled 44 officers and over 1,500 men.

The Seventy-eighth Division pushed its lines forward to Bellejoyeuse Farm and began to mop up the Bois des Loges.

Oct. 21—In attacks on the Bois des Rappes the Fifth Division met with stubborn resistance by machine guns, supported by artillery and infantry fire. It captured the entire position, with 170 prisoners, including 5 officers. An enemy counterattack, supported by heavy artillery fire, was repulsed with heavy losses.

The Fifth and Third Divisions took Hill 297 and Bois des Rappes.

Attacking in the evening, the Eighty-ninth Division occupied the northern and eastern edge of the Bois de Banthéville.

Oct. 23—Troops of the Third Corps reached the north ridge of the village of Banthéville, taking 171 prisoners.

The Twenty-ninth Division captured the ridge of the Bois d'Etrayes and Hill 361.

Oct. 27—The Seventy-eighth Division entered Bellejoyeuse Farm, northeast of Grandpré, and found it unoccupied. The occu-

pation of the right of way north and northwest of Grandpré was completed.

Oct. 30—Patrols were active along the entire front of the Twenty-eighth Division. The Thirty-third Division, in the face of heavy artillery and machine-gun fire, north of Grandpré advanced its lines and occupied the Bellejoyeuse Farm. On Oct. 30 2,000 high explosive and gun shells fell in the vicinity of Fresnes. One of the divisional patrols captured five prisoners.

Nov. 1—The troops of the First Army captured Cléry-le-Grand. North of Ancreville they took 53 additional prisoners and continued their advance into the Bois de Banthéville. During the night of Nov. 1-2 the troops of the Thirty-seventh Division consolidated their positions and effected a crossing of the River Scheldt, confronted by enemy machine-gun and rifle fire. The Ninety-first Division, supported by artillery and machine-gun fire, rapidly advanced over 6 kilometers in spite of enemy artillery and machine-gun fire. The enemy was driven from the west bank of the Scheldt and at noon the heights northwest of Audenarde were taken.

Nov. 2—In the evening the troops of the Seventy-eighth Division drove the enemy from the Bois des Loges and closely followed his retreat. The Ninety-second Division, in spite of machine-gun resistance, pushed forward and advanced the line 3 kilometers.

Nov. 3—The Ninety-first Division, in spite of active machine-gun resistance, forced its way toward the bank of the Scheldt in the vicinity of Eyne.

Nov. 4—A brigade of the Seventy-ninth Division attacked an enemy sector, taking 81 prisoners and 8 machine guns, encountering strong resistance and repulsing several counterattacks.

Nov. 5—The troops of the Seventy-seventh Division engaged in severe fighting, and overcame strong enemy resistance along the entire line. The artillery was active, firing on the enemy's retreating columns. Harassing artillery fire was returned by the enemy. Aviation was active on both sides. The enemy flew over our front lines and delivered machine-gun fire on our advancing troops. Two enemy planes were brought down.

Nov. 6—Our troops of the First Corps continued their successful advance, forcing the enemy to retire. The towns of Flabas, Raucourt, Haraucourt, and Autrecourt were taken, and patrols pushed on as far as the Meuse. Large quantities of matériel were captured during the advance.

Following heavy bombardment on the enemy's divisions the troops of the Fifth Division attacked, rapidly overcoming the enemy's resistance, capturing Liondevant-Dun, Murvaux, Fontaine, and

Vilosnes-sur-Meuse, taking more than 250 prisoners.

Nov. 7—The troops of the Second Division cleared the west bank of the Meuse of the remaining machine guns and snipers in the vicinity of Mouzon. The Fifth Division, supported by artillery fire, continued its advance despite the enemy's continued resistance, principally with machine guns. Most of the artillery crossed to the east bank of the Meuse, following in support of the infantry. Additional prisoners were taken, including 2 officers and 132 men.

Nov. 8—The patrols of the Second Division crossed the Meuse south of Mouzon. The troops of the Thirty-third Division, aided by barrage fire, carried out a successful raid on Château Aulnois, capturing 1 officer and 22 men. Strong combat patrols were sent out from the lines of the Ninety-second Division (colored.) Prisoners were captured and casualties inflicted on the enemy.

Nov. 9—During midnight the patrols of the Fifth Division drove back the enemy, inflicting many casualties and capturing 6 prisoners. The troops consolidated, and, despite stubborn resistance, principally from machine guns, drove the enemy from Bois du Canol and La Sentinelle and captured Brandeville. In these operations 47 prisoners, 125 machine guns, and other matériel were captured. A strong combat patrol was active along the entire front of the Thirty-third Division, meeting with heavy machine-gun resistance

from the enemy, and a patrol of one company captured 8 prisoners in the Bois de Warville. The troops of the Seventy-ninth Division advanced in a generally northeasterly direction, with the right flank in Bois de Damvillers. The Forty-second and units of the First seized the heights south of Sedan.

Nov. 10—The Thirty-third Division carried out a successful raid on Marcheville, occupying the town and taking 80 prisoners, including 3 officers. Strong patrols from the line engaged in sharp fighting. The Thirty-seventh Division, operating with the Thirty-fourth French Army Corps, attacked in order to force a crossing of the Scheldt. Violent enfilading machine-gun fire, heavy artillery, and the flooded condition of the terrain delayed the construction of bridges and crossings. In the face of continuous heavy artillery fire, supported by machine guns, the troops advanced about 2 kilometers. The Ninetieth Division advanced toward Sudlon, encountering no resistance. The Ninety-second Division reached Bois Trehaut and captured 710 prisoners.

Nov. 11—The Third Division advanced 3 kilometers east of Bréhéville. Despite increased resistance by machine-gun and artillery fire, the Fifth Division continued to advance, capturing 18 prisoners, 3 large-calibre guns, 6 minenwerfers, and considerable matériel. In accordance with the terms of the armistice, hostilities on the front of the American armies ceased at 11 A. M.

General Wood to His Men at Camp Funston

Major Gen. Leonard Wood, whose lot it was to train young soldiers in a cantonment at home instead of winning glory in France, gave this memorable message to each man mustered out at Camp Funston, Kansas:

In the performance of military duty to one's country in time of war it is not for the citizen called to the colors to select the kind of service to be done by him. One who has willingly and loyally responded to the call to arms, and who has put his best efforts, mental and physical, into the training, and performed all military duties required of him to the best of his ability, standing ready always to make the supreme sacrifice of life itself, if need be, has done all that a good citizen and soldier could do to insure the successful prosecution of the war.

Although I appreciate how keenly you feel the disappointment of your failure to

secure duty overseas in the actual battle area, I know you rejoice together with all Americans in the prospect of a righteous and just peace imposed upon the enemy and the termination of the terrible conflict which has involved the whole civilized world. You have done your best. You have cheerfully and loyally discharged the clear duty of every citizen in time of war and your work has been a part of the great national effort which has aided in securing a victorious peace.

You are discharged from the army because your services are no longer required in the present emergency. You will return to your place in civil life all the better for the training you have had, and I feel sure you will take with you a better and higher appreciation of the obligations of citizenship, including the obligation of every man to be trained, prepared, and ready to render service to the nation in war as well as in peace.

General Pershing's Official Story

Battles Fought by American Armies in France From Their Organization to the Fall of Sedan

[CABLED BY GENERAL PERSHING TO MR. BAKER, SECRETARY OF WAR, AND MADE PUBLIC WITH HIS ANNUAL REPORT, DEC. 5, 1918]

NOVEMBER 20, 1918.

MY DEAR MR. SECRETARY: In response to your request, I have the honor to submit this brief summary of the organization and operation of the American Expeditionary Force from May 26, 1917, until the signing of the armistice Nov. 11, 1918. Pursuant to your instructions, immediately upon receiving my orders I selected a small staff and proceeded to Europe in order to become familiar with conditions at the earliest possible moment.

The warmth of our reception in England and France was only equaled by the readiness of the Commanders in Chief of the veteran armies of the Allies, and their staffs, to place their experience at our disposal. In consultation with them the most effective means of co-operation of effort was considered. With the French and British Armies at their maximum strength, and when all efforts to dispossess the enemy from his firmly entrenched positions in Belgium and France had failed, it was necessary to plan for an American force adequate to turn the scale in favor of the Allies. Taking account of the strength of the Central Powers at that time, the immensity of the problem which confronted us could hardly be overestimated. The first requisite being an organization that could give intelligent direction to effort, the formation of a General Staff occupied my early attention.

A well-organized General Staff, through which the Commander exercises his functions, is essential to a successful modern army. However capable our division, our battalion, and our companies as such, success would be impossible without thoroughly co-ordinated endeavor. A General Staff broadly organized and trained for war had not

hitherto existed in our army. Under the Commander in Chief, this staff must carry out the policy and direct the details of administration, supply, preparation, and operations of the army as a whole, with all special branches and bureaus subject to its control. As models to aid us we had the veteran French General Staff and the experience of the British, who had similarly formed an organization to meet the demands of a great army. By selecting from each the features best adapted to our basic organization, and fortified by our own early experience in the war, the development of our great General Staff system was completed.

The General Staff is naturally divided into five groups, each with its chief, who is an assistant to the Chief of the General Staff. G. 1 is in charge of organization and equipment of troops, replacements, tonnage, priority of overseas shipment, the auxiliary welfare association, and cognate subjects; G. 2 has censorship, enemy intelligence, gathering and disseminating information, preparation of maps, and all similar subjects; G. 3 is charged with all strategic studies and plans, movement of troops, and the supervision of combat operations; G. 4 co-ordinates important questions of supply, construction, transport arrangements for combat, and of the operations of the service of supply, and of hospitalization and the evacuation of the sick and wounded; G. 5 supervises the various schools and has general direction and coordination of education and training.

The first Chief of Staff was Colonel (now Major Gen.) James G. Harbord, who was succeeded in March, 1918, by Major Gen. James W. McAndrew. To these officers, to the Deputy Chief of Staff, and to the Assistant Chiefs of Staff, who, as heads of sections, aided them, great credit is due for the results obtained, not only in perfecting the General Staff organization, but in applying correct principles to the multiplicity of problems that have arisen.

ORGANIZATION AND TRAINING

After a thorough consideration of allied organizations, it was decided that our combat division should consist of four regiments of infantry of 3,000 men, with three battalions to a regiment and four companies of 250 men each to a battalion, and of an artillery brigade of three regiments, a machine-gun bat-

talion, an engineer regiment, a trench-mortar battery, a signal battalion, wagon trains, and the headquarters staffs and military police. These, with medical and other units, made a total of over 28,000 men, or practically double the size of a French or German division. Each corps would normally consist of six divisions—four combat and one depot and one replacement division—and also two regiments of cavalry, and each army of from three to five corps. With four divisions fully trained, a corps could take over an American sector with two divisions in line and two in reserve, with the depot and replacement divisions prepared to fill the gaps in the ranks.

Our purpose was to prepare an integral American force which should be able to take the offensive in every respect. Accordingly, the development of a self-reliant infantry by thorough drill in the use of the rifle and in the tactics of open warfare was always uppermost. The plan of training after arrival in France allowed a division one month for acclimatization and instruction in small units from battalions down, a second month in quiet trench sectors by battalion, and a third month after it came out of the trenches when it should be trained as a complete division in war of movement.

Very early a system of schools was outlined and started which should have the advantage of instruction by officers direct from the front. At the great school centre at Langres, one of the first to be organized, was the staff school, where the principles of general staff work, as laid down in our own organization, were taught to carefully selected officers. Men in the ranks who had shown qualities of leadership were sent to the school of candidates for commissions. A school of the line taught younger officers the principles of leadership, tactics, and the use of the different weapons. In the artillery school, at Saumur, young officers were taught the fundamental principles of modern artillery; while at Issoudun an immense plant was built for training cadets in aviation. These and other schools, with their well-considered curriculums for training in every branch of our organization, were co-ordinated in a manner best to develop an efficient army out of willing and industrious young men, many of whom had not before known even the rudiments of military technique. Both Marshal Haig and General Pétain placed officers and men at our disposal for instructional purposes, and we are deeply indebted for the opportunities given to profit by their veteran experience.

AMERICAN ZONE

The eventual place the American Army should take on the western front was to a large extent influenced by the vital questions of communication and supply. The northern ports of France were crowded by the British Armies' shipping and supplies, while the southern ports, though otherwise

at our service, had not adequate port facilities for our purposes, and these we should have to build. The already overtaxed railway system behind the active front in Northern France would not be available for us as lines of supply, and those leading from the southern ports of Northeastern France would be unequal to our needs without much new construction. Practically all warehouses, supply depots and regulating stations must be provided by fresh constructions. While France offered us such material as she had to spare after a drain of three years, enormous quantities of material had to be brought across the Atlantic.

With such a problem any temporization or lack of definiteness in making plans might cause failure even with victory within our grasp. Moreover, broad plans commensurate with our national purpose and resources would bring conviction of our power to every soldier in the front line, to the nations associated with us in the war, and to the enemy. The tonnage for material for necessary construction for the supply of an army of three and perhaps four million men would require a mammoth program of shipbuilding at home, and miles of dock construction in France, with a corresponding large project for additional railways and for storage depots.

All these considerations led to the inevitable conclusion that if we were to handle and supply the great forces deemed essential to win the war we must utilize the southern ports of France—Bordeaux, La Pallice, St. Nazaire, and Brest—and the comparatively unused railway systems leading therefrom to the northeast. Generally speaking, then, this would contemplate the use of our forces against the enemy somewhere in that direction, but the great depots of supply must be centrally located, preferably in the area included by Tours, Bourges, and Châteauroux, so that our armies could be supplied with equal facility wherever they might be serving on the western front.

GROWTH OF SUPPLY SERVICE

To build up such a system there were talented men in the Regular Army, but more experts were necessary than the army could furnish. Thanks to the patriotic spirit of our people at home, there came from civil life men trained for every sort of work involved in building and managing the organization necessary to handle and transport such an army and keep it supplied. With such assistance the construction and general development of our plans have kept pace with the growth of the forces, and the Service of Supply is now able to discharge from ships and move 45,000 tons daily, besides transporting troops and material in the conduct of active operations.

As to organization, all the administrative and supply services, except the Adjutant General's, Inspector General's, and Judge Advocate General's Departments, which remain at general headquarters, have been

transferred to the headquarters of the services of supplies at Tours under a commanding General responsible to the Commander in Chief for supply of the armies. The Chief Quartermaster, Chief Surgeon, Chief Signal Officer, Chief of Ordnance, Chief of Air Service, Chief of Chemical Warfare, the general purchasing agent in all that pertains to questions of procurement and supply, the Provost Marshal General in the maintenance of order in general, the Director General of Transportation in all that affects such matters, and the Chief Engineer in all matters of administration and supply, are subordinate to the Commanding General of the Service of Supply, who, assisted by a staff especially organized for the purpose, is charged with the administrative co-ordination of all these services.

The transportation department under the Service of Supply directs the operation, maintenance, and construction of railways, the operation of terminals, the unloading of ships, and transportation of material to warehouses or to the front. Its functions make necessary the most intimate relationship between our organization and that of the French, with the practical result that our transportation department has been able to improve materially the operations of railways generally. Constantly laboring under a shortage of rolling stock, the transportation department has nevertheless been able by efficient management to meet every emergency.

The Engineer Corps is charged with all construction, including light railways and roads. It has planned and constructed the many projects required, the most important of which are the new wharves at Bordeaux and Nantes, and the immense storage depots at La Pallice, Mointoir, and Glèvres, besides innumerable hospitals and barracks in various parts of France. These projects have all been carried on by phases keeping pace with our needs. The Forestry Service under the Engineer Corps has cut the greater part of the timber and railway ties required.

To meet the shortage of supplies from America, due to lack of shipping, the representatives of the different supply departments were constantly in search of available material and supplies in Europe. In order to co-ordinate these purchases and to prevent competition between our departments, a general purchasing agency was created early in our experience to co-ordinate our purchases and, if possible, induce our allies to apply the principle among the allied armies. While there was no authority for the general use of appropriations, this was met by grouping the purchasing representatives of the different departments under one control, charged with the duty of consolidating requisitions and purchases. Our efforts to extend the principle have been signally successful, and all purchases for the allied armies are now on an equitable and co-operative basis. Indeed, it may be said that the work of this

bureau has been thoroughly efficient and businesslike.

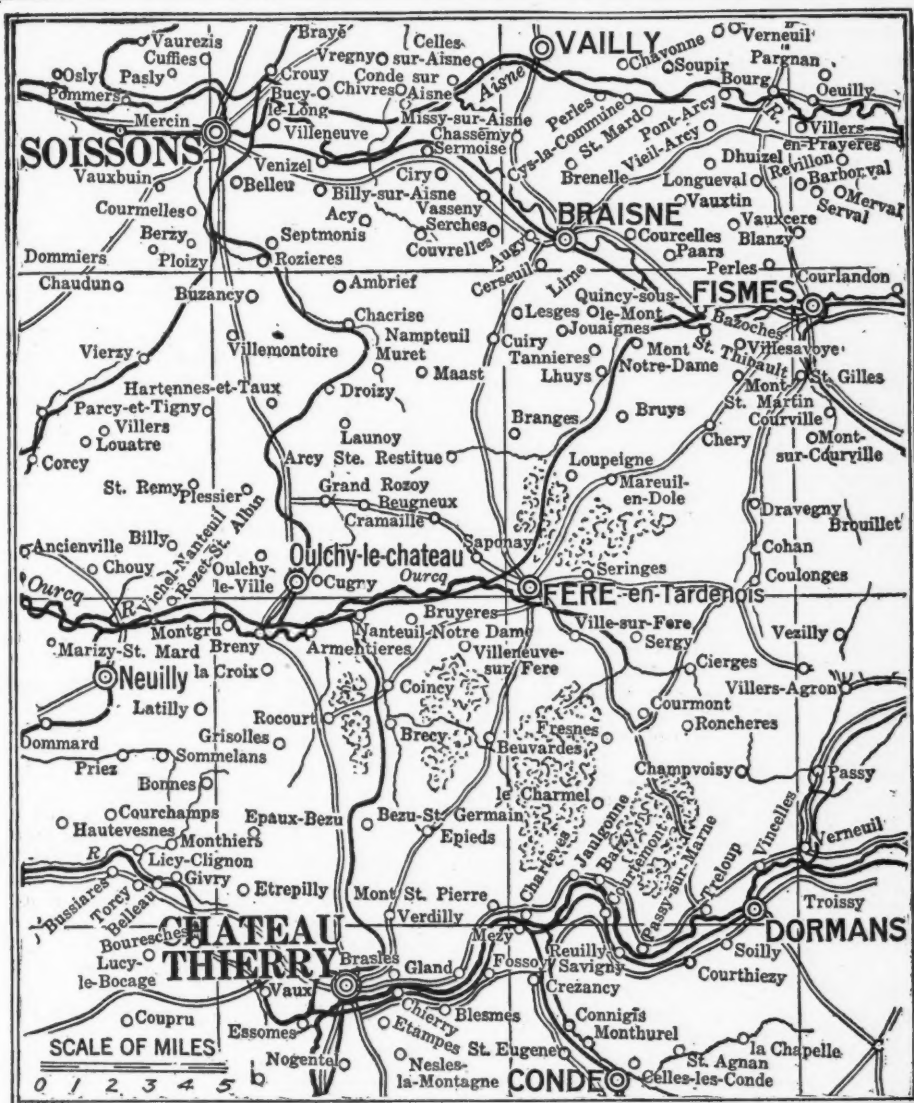
ARTILLERY, AIRPLANES, TANKS

Our entry into the war found us with few of the auxiliaries necessary for its conduct in the modern sense. Among our most important deficiencies in material were artillery, aviation, and tanks. In order to meet our requirements as rapidly as possible, we accepted the offer of the French Government to provide us with the necessary artillery equipment of seventy-fives, one fifty-five millimeter howitzers, and one fifty-five G. P. F. guns from their own factories for thirty divisions. The wisdom of this course is fully demonstrated by the fact that, although we soon began the manufacture of these classes of guns at home, there were no guns of the calibres mentioned manufactured in America on our front at the date the armistice was signed. The only guns of these types produced at home thus far received in France are 109 seventy-five millimeter guns.

In aviation we were in the same situation, and here again the French Government came to our aid until our own aviation program should be under way. We obtained from the French the necessary planes for training our personnel, and they have provided us with a total of 2,676 pursuit, observation, and bombing planes. The first airplanes received from home arrived in May, and altogether we have received 1,373. The first American squadron completely equipped by American production, including airplanes, crossed the German lines on Aug. 7, 1918. As to tanks, we were also compelled to rely upon the French. Here, however, we were less fortunate, for the reason that the French production could barely meet the requirements of their own armies.

It should be fully realized that the French Government has always taken a most liberal attitude, and has been most anxious to give us every possible assistance in meeting our deficiencies in these as well as in other respects. Our dependence upon France for artillery, aviation, and tanks was, of course, due to the fact that our industries had not been exclusively devoted to military production. All credit is due our own manufacturers for their efforts to meet our requirements, as at the time the armistice was signed we were able to look forward to the early supply of practically all our necessities from our own factories.

The welfare of the troops touches my responsibility as Commander in Chief to the mothers and fathers and kindred of the men who came to France in the impressionable period of youth. They could not have the privilege accorded European soldiers during their periods of leave of visiting their families and renewing their home ties. Fully realizing that the standard of conduct that should be established for them must have a permanent influence in their lives and on the character of their future citizenship, the Red



SCENE OF FIRST HEAVY FIGHTING BY GENERAL PERSHING'S FORCES, BEGINNING WITH THE RETAKING OF CHATEAU-THIERRY AND THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE MARINES IN BELLEAU WOOD

Cross, the Young Men's Christian Association, Knights of Columbus, the Salvation Army, and the Jewish Welfare Board, as auxiliaries in this work, were encouraged in every possible way. The fact that our soldiers, in a land of different customs and language, have borne themselves in a manner in keeping with the cause for which they fought, is due not only to the efforts in their behalf, but much more to their high ideals, their discipline, and their innate sense of self-respect. It should be recorded, however, that the members of these welfare societies have been untiring in their desire to be of real service to our officers and men. The

patriotic devotion of these representative men and women has given a new significance to the Golden Rule, and we owe to them a debt of gratitude that can never be repaid.

COMBAT OPERATIONS

During our period of training in the trenches some of our divisions had engaged the enemy in local combats, the most important of which was Seicheprey by the 26th on April 20, in the Toul sector, but none had participated in action as a unit. The 1st Division, which had passed through the preliminary stages of training, had gone to the trenches for its first period of instruction

at the end of October, and by March 21, when the German offensive in Picardy began, we had four divisions with experience in the trenches, all of which were equal to any demands of battle action. The crisis which this offensive developed was such that our occupation of an American sector must be postponed.

On March 28 I placed at the disposal of Marshal Foch, who had been agreed upon as Commander in Chief of the Allied Armies, all of our forces, to be used as he might decide. At his request the 1st Division was transferred from the Toul sector to a position in reserve at Chaumont en Vexin. As German superiority in numbers required prompt action, an agreement was reached at the Abbeville conference of the allied Premiers and commanders and myself on May 2 by which British shipping was to transport ten American divisions to the British Army area, where they were to be trained and equipped, and additional British shipping was to be provided for as many divisions as possible for use elsewhere.

On April 26 the 1st Division had gone into the line in the Montdidier salient on the Picardy battlefield. Tactics had been suddenly revolutionized to those of open warfare, and our men, confident of the results of their training, were eager for the test. On the morning of May 28 this division attacked the commanding German position in its front, taking with splendid dash the town of Cantigny and all other objectives, which were organized and held steadfastly against vicious counterattacks and galling artillery fire. Although local, this brilliant action had an electrical effect, as it demonstrated our fighting qualities under extreme battle conditions, and also that the enemy's troops were not altogether invincible.

HOLDING THE MARNE

The Germans' Aisne offensive, which began on May 27, had advanced rapidly toward the River Marne and Paris, and the Allies faced a crisis equally as grave as that of the Picardy offensive in March. Again every available man was placed at Marshal Foch's disposal, and the 3d Division, which had just come from its preliminary training in the trenches, was hurried to the Marne. Its motorized machine-gun battalion preceded the other units and successfully held the bridgehead at the Marne, opposite Château-Thierry. The 2d Division, in reserve near Montdidier, was sent by motor trucks and other available transport to check the progress of the enemy toward Paris. The division attacked and retook the town and railroad station at Bouresches and sturdily held its ground against the enemy's best guard divisions. In the battle of Belleau Wood, which followed, our men proved their superiority and gained a strong tactical position, with far greater loss to the enemy than to ourselves. On July 1, before the 2d was relieved,

it captured the village of Vaux with most splendid precision.

Meanwhile our 2d Corps, under Major Gen. George W. Read, had been organized for the command of our divisions with the British, which were held back in training areas or assigned to second-line defenses. Five of the ten divisions were withdrawn from the British area in June, three to relieve divisions in Lorraine and in the Vosges and two to the Paris area to join the group of American divisions which stood between the city and any further advance of the enemy in that direction.

The great June-July troop movement from the States was well under way, and, although these troops were to be given some preliminary training before being put into action, their very presence warranted the use of all the older divisions in the confidence that we did not lack reserves. Elements of the 42d Division were in the line east of Rheims against the German offensive of July 15, and held their ground unflinchingly. On the right flank of this offensive four companies of the 28th Division were in position in face of the advancing waves of the German infantry. The 3d Division was holding the bank of the Marne from the bend east of the mouth of the Surmellin to the west of Mézy, opposite Château-Thierry, where a large force of German infantry sought to force a passage under support of powerful artillery concentrations and under cover of smoke screens. A single regiment of the 3d wrote one of the most brilliant pages in our military annals on this occasion. It prevented the crossing at certain points on its front while, on either flank, the Germans, who had gained a footing, pressed forward. Our men, firing in three directions, met the German attacks with counterattacks at critical points and succeeded in throwing two German divisions into complete confusion, capturing 600 prisoners.

OFFENSIVE OF JULY 18

The great force of the German Château-Thierry offensive established the deep Marne salient, but the enemy was taking chances, and the vulnerability of this pocket to attack might be turned to his disadvantage. Seizing this opportunity to support my conviction, every division with any sort of training was made available for use in a counteroffensive. The place of honor in the thrust toward Soissons on July 18 was given to our 1st and 2d Divisions in company with chosen French divisions. Without the usual brief warning of a preliminary bombardment, the massed French and American artillery, firing by the map, laid down its rolling barrage at dawn while the infantry began its charge. The tactical handling of our troops under these trying conditions was excellent throughout the action. The enemy brought up large numbers of reserves and made a stubborn defense both with machine guns and artillery, but through five days' fighting

the 1st Division continued to advance until it had gained the heights above Soissons and captured the village of Berzy-le-Sec. The 2d Division took Beau Repaire Farm and Vierzy in a very rapid advance and reached a position in front of Tigny at the end of its second day. These two divisions captured 7,000 prisoners and over 100 pieces of artillery.

The 26th Division, which, with a French division, was under command of our 1st Corps, acted as a pivot of the movement toward Soissons. On the 18th it took the village of Torcy, while the 3d Division was crossing the Marne in pursuit of the retiring enemy. The 26th attacked again on the 21st, and the enemy withdrew past the Château-Thierry-Soissons road. The 3d Division, continuing its progress, took the heights of Mont St. Père and the villages of Chartèves and Jaulgonne in the face of both machine-gun and artillery fire.

On the 24th, after the Germans had fallen back from Trugny and Epieds, our 42d Division, which had been brought over from the Champagne, relieved the 26th, and, fighting its way through the Forêt de Fère, overwhelmed the nest of machine guns in its path. By the 27th it had reached the Ourcq, whence the 3d and 4th Divisions were already advancing, while the French divisions with which we were co-operating were moving forward at other points.

The 3d Division had made its advance into Ronchères Wood on the 29th and was relieved for rest by a brigade of the 32d. The 42d and 32d undertook the task of conquering the heights beyond Clerges, the 42d capturing Sergy and the 32d capturing Hill 230, both American divisions joining in the pursuit of the enemy to the Vesle, and thus the operation of reducing the salient was finished. Meanwhile the 42d was relieved by the 4th at Chéry-Chartreuve, and the 32d by the 28th, while the 77th Division took up a position on the Vesle. The operations of these divisions on the Vesle were under the 3d Corps, Major Gen. Robert L. Bullard commanding.

BATTLE OF ST. MIHIEL

With the reduction of the Marne salient, we could look forward to the concentration of our divisions in our own zone. In view of the forthcoming operation against the St. Mihiel salient, which had long been planned as our first offensive action on a large scale, the First Army was organized on Aug. 10 under my personal command. While American units had held different divisional and corps sectors along the western front, there had not been up to this time, for obvious reasons, a distinct American sector; but, in view of the important parts the American forces were now to play, it was necessary to take over a permanent portion of the line. Accordingly, on Aug. 30, the line beginning at Port sur Seille, east of the Moselle and extending to the west through St. Mihiel, thence north to a point opposite Verdun, was

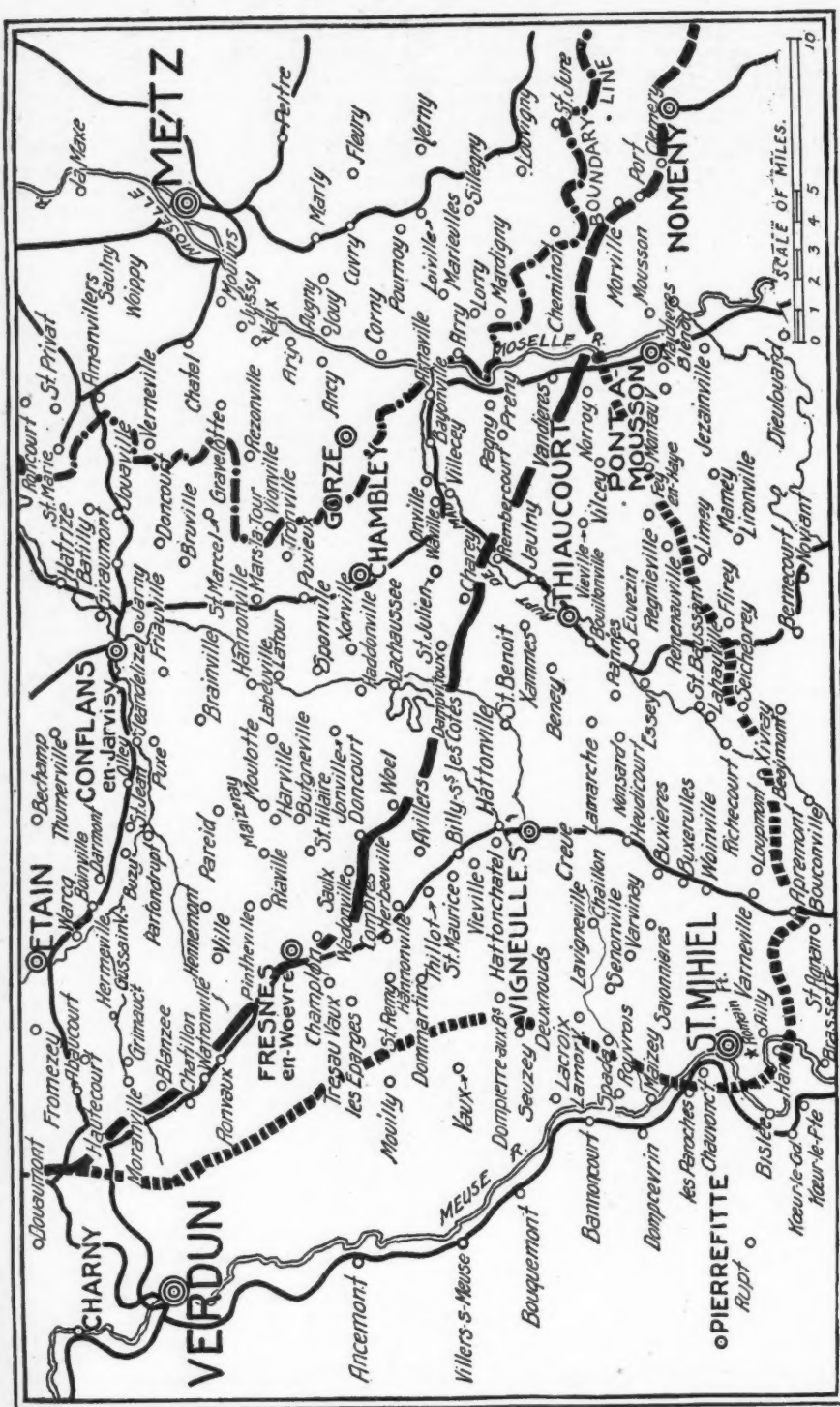
placed under my command. The American sector was afterward extended across the Meuse to the western edge of the Argonne Forest, and included the 2d Colonial French, which held the point of the salient, and the 17th French Corps, which occupied the heights above Verdun.

The preparation for a complicated operation against the formidable defenses in front of us included the assembling of divisions and of corps and army artillery, transport, aircraft, tanks, ambulances, the location of hospitals, and the molding together of all the elements of a great modern army with its own railheads, supplied directly by our own Service of Supply. The concentration for this operation, which was to be a surprise, involved the movement, mostly at night, of approximately 600,000 troops, and required for its success the most careful attention to every detail.

The French were generous in giving us assistance in corps and army artillery, with its personnel, and we were confident from the start of our superiority over the enemy in guns of all calibres. Our heavy guns were able to reach Metz and to interfere seriously with German rail movements. The French Independent Air Force was placed under my command, which, together with the British bombing squadrons and our air forces, gave us the largest assembly of aviators that had ever been engaged in one operation on the western front.

From Les Eparges around the nose of the salient at St. Mihiel to the Moselle River the line was, roughly, forty miles long and situated on commanding ground greatly strengthened by artificial defenses. Our 1st Corps, (82d, 90th, 5th, and 2d Divisions,) under command of Major Gen. Hunter Liggett, resting its right on Pont-a-Mousson, with its left joining our 3d Corps, (the 89th, 42d, and 1st Divisions,) under Major Gen. Joseph T. Dickman, in line to Xivray, was to swing toward Vigneulles on the pivot of the Moselle River for the initial assault. From Xivray to Mouilly the 2d Colonial French Corps was in line in the centre, and our 5th Corps, under command of Major Gen. George H. Cameron, with our 26th Division and a French division at the western base of the salient, was to attack three difficult hills—Les Eparges, Combres, and Amaranthe. Our 1st Corps had in reserve the 78th Division, our 4th Corps the 3d Division, and our First Army the 35th and 91st Divisions, with the 80th and 33d available. It should be understood that our corps organizations are very elastic, and that we have at no time had permanent assignments of divisions to corps.

After four hours' artillery preparation, the seven American divisions in the front line advanced at 5 A. M. on Sept. 12, assisted by a limited number of tanks, manned partly by Americans and partly by French. These divisions, accompanied by groups of wire cutters and others armed with bangalore torpedoes, went through the successive bands



THE ST. MIEHEL SALIENT, TAKEN FROM THE ENEMY BY THE AMERICAN FIRST ARMY, SEPT. 12, 1918

of barbed wire that protected the enemy's front-line and support trenches in irresistible waves on schedule time, breaking down all defense of an enemy demoralized by the great volume of our artillery fire and our sudden approach out of the fog.

Our 1st Corps advanced to Thiaucourt, while our 4th Corps curved back to the southwest through Nonsard. The 2d Colonial French Corps made the slight advance required of it on very difficult ground, and the 5th Corps took its three ridges and repulsed a counterattack. A rapid march brought reserve regiments of a division of the 5th Corps into Vigneulles and beyond Fresnes-en-Woevre. At the cost of only 7,000 casualties, mostly light, we had taken 16,000 prisoners and 443 guns, a great quantity of material, released the inhabitants of many villages from enemy domination, and established our lines in a position to threaten Metz. This signal success of the American First Army in its first offensive was of prime importance. The Allies found they had a formidable army to aid them, and the enemy learned finally that he had one to reckon with.

MEUSE-ARGONNE OFFENSIVE, FIRST PHASE.

On the day after we had taken the St. Mihiel salient much of our corps and army artillery which had operated at St. Mihiel, and our divisions in reserve at other points, were already on the move toward the area back of the line between the Meuse River and the western edge of the Forest of Argonne. With the exception of St. Mihiel, the old German front line from Switzerland to the east of Rheims was still intact. In the general attack all along the line the operation assigned the American Army as the hinge of this allied offensive were directed toward the important railroad communications of the German armies through Mézières and Sedan. The enemy must hold fast to this part of his lines, or the withdrawal of his forces, with four years' accumulation of plants and material, would be dangerously imperiled.

The German Army had as yet shown no demoralization, and, while the mass of its troops had suffered in morale, its first-class divisions, and notably its machine-gun defense, were exhibiting remarkable tactical efficiency as well as courage. The German General Staff was fully aware of the consequences of a success on the Meuse-Argonne line. Certain that he would do everything in his power to oppose us, the action was planned with as much secrecy as possible and was undertaken with the determination to use all our divisions in forcing decision. We expected to draw the best German divisions to our front and to consume them while the enemy was held under grave apprehension lest our attack should break his line, which it was our firm purpose to do.

Our right flank was protected by the

Meuse, while our left embraced the Argonne Forest, whose ravines, hills, and elaborate defense, screened by dense thickets, had been generally considered impregnable. Our order of battle from right to left was the 3d Corps from the Meuse to Malancourt, with the 33d, 80th, and 4th Divisions in line and the 3d Division as corps reserve; the 5th Corps from Malancourt to Vauquois, with the 79th, 87th, and 91st Divisions in line and the 32d in corps reserve, and the 1st Corps from Vauquois to Vienne le Château, with the 35th, 28th, and 77th Divisions in line and the 92d in corps reserve. The army reserve consisted of the 1st, 29th, and 82d Divisions.

On the night of Sept. 25 our troops quietly took the place of the French, who thinly held the line in this sector, which had long been inactive. In the attack which began on the 26th we drove through the barbed-wire entanglements and the sea of shell craters across No Man's Land, mastering all the first-line defenses. Continuing on the 27th and 28th, against machine guns and artillery of an increasing number of enemy reserve divisions, we penetrated to a depth of from three to seven miles and took the village of Montfaucon and its commanding hill and Exermont, Gercourt, Cuisy, Septsarges, Malancourt, Ivoiry, Epinonville, Charpentry, Very, and other villages. East of the Meuse one of our divisions, which was with the 2d Colonial French Corps, captured Marcheville and Rievville, giving further protection to the flank of our main body. We had taken 10,000 prisoners, we had gained our point of forcing the battle into the open, and were prepared for the enemy's reaction, which was bound to come, as he had good roads and ample railroad facilities for bringing up his artillery and reserves.

In the chill rain of dark nights our engineers had to build new roads across spongy, shell-torn areas, repair broken roads beyond No Man's Land, and build bridges. Our gunners, with no thought of sleep, put their shoulders to wheels and drag ropes to bring their guns through the mire in support of the infantry, now under the increasing fire of the enemy's artillery. Our attack had taken the enemy by surprise, but, quickly recovering himself, he began to fire counterattacks in strong force, supported by heavy bombardments, with large quantities of gas. From Sept. 28 until Oct. 4 we maintained the offensive against patches of woods defended by snipers and continuous lines of machine guns, and pushed forward our guns and transport, seizing strategic points in preparation for further attacks.

OTHER UNITS WITH ALLIES

Other divisions attached to the allied armies were doing their part. It was the fortune of our 2d Corps, composed of the 27th and 30th Divisions, which had remained with the British, to have a place of honor in co-operation with the Australian Corps on Sept. 29 and Oct. 1 in the assault on the

Hindenburg line where the St. Quentin Canal passes through a tunnel under a ridge. The 30th Division speedily broke through the main line of defense for all its objectives, while the 27th pushed on impetuously through the main line until some of its elements reached Gouy. In the midst of the maze of trenches and shell craters and under crossfire from machine guns the other elements fought desperately against odds. In this and in later actions, from Oct. 6 to Oct. 19, our 2d Corps captured over 6,000 prisoners and advanced over thirteen miles. The spirit and aggressiveness of these divisions have been highly praised by the British Army commander under whom they served.

On Oct. 2-9 our 2d and 36th Divisions were sent to assist the French in an important attack against the old German positions before Rheims. The 2d conquered the complicated defense works on their front against a persistent defense worthy of the grimmest period of trench warfare and attacked the strongly held wooded hill of Blanc Mont, which they captured in a second assault, sweeping over it with consummate dash and skill. This division then repulsed strong counterattacks before the village and cemetery of Ste. Etienne and took the town, forcing the Germans to fall back from before Rheims and yield positions they had held since September, 1914. On Oct. 9 the 36th Division relieved the 2d, and in its first experience under fire withstood very severe artillery bombardment and rapidly took up the pursuit of the enemy, now retreating behind the Aisne.

MEUSE-ARGONNE OFFENSIVE, SECOND PHASE

The allied progress elsewhere cheered the efforts of our men in this crucial contest, as the German command threw in more and more first-class troops to stop our advance. We made steady headway in the almost impenetrable and strongly held Argonne Forest, for, despite this reinforcement, it was our army that was doing the driving. Our aircraft was increasing in skill and numbers and forcing the issue, and our infantry and artillery were improving rapidly with each new experience. The replacements fresh from home were put into exhausted divisions with little time for training, but they had the advantage of serving beside men who knew their business and who had almost become veterans overnight. The enemy had taken every advantage of the terrain, which especially favored the defense, by a prodigal use of machine guns manned by highly trained veterans and by using his artillery at short ranges. In the face of such strong frontal positions we should have been unable to accomplish any progress according to previously accepted standards, but I had every confidence in our aggressive tactics and the courage of our troops.

On Oct. 4 the attack was renewed all along

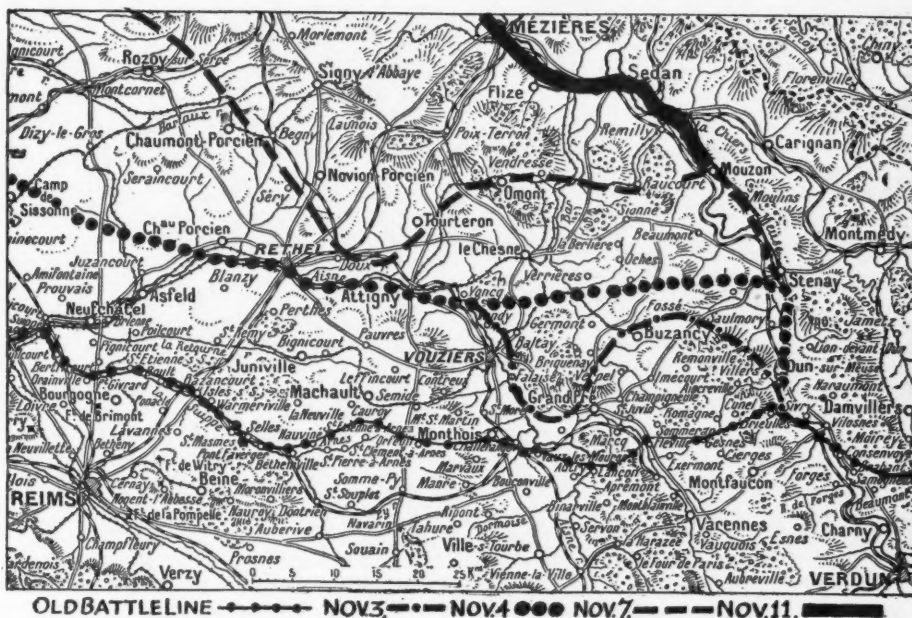
our front. The 3d Corps, tilting to the left, followed the Brioules-Cunel road; our 5th Corps took Gesnes, while the 1st Corps advanced for over two miles along the irregular valley of the Aire River and in the wooded hills of the Argonne that bordered the river, used by the enemy with all his art and weapons of defense. This sort of fighting continued against an enemy striving to hold every foot of ground and whose very strong counterattacks challenged us at every



SCENES OF BITTEREST FIGHTING IN
ARGONNE FOREST REGION

point. On the 7th the 1st Corps captured Chatal-Chénéry and continued along the river to Cornay. On the east of Meuse sector one of the two divisions, co-operating with the French, captured Consenvoye and the Haumont Woods. On the 9th the 5th Corps, in its progress up the Aire, took Fléville, and the 3d Corps, which had continuous fighting against odds, was working its way through Brioules and Cunel. On the 10th we had cleared the Argonne Forest of the enemy.

It was now necessary to constitute a second army, and on Oct. 9 the immediate command of the First Army was turned over to Lieut. Gen. Hunter Liggett. The command of the Second Army, whose divisions occupied a sector in the Woevre, was given to Lieut. Gen. Robert L. Bullard, who had been commander of the 1st Division and then of the 3d Corps. Major Gen. Dickman was transferred to the command of the 1st Corps, while the 5th Corps was placed under Major Gen. Charles P. Summerall, who had recently commanded the 1st Division. Major Gen. John L. Hines, who had gone rapidly up from regimental to division commander, was assigned to the 3d Corps. These four officers had been in France from the early



SCENE OF FINAL BATTLES OF AMERICAN FORCES FROM THE ARGONNE REGION TO THE MEUSE RIVER AND UP TO SEDAN

days of the expedition and had learned their lessons in the school of practical warfare.

Our constant pressure against the enemy brought day by day more prisoners, mostly survivors from machine-gun nests captured in fighting at close quarters. On Oct. 18 there was very fierce fighting in the Caures Woods east of the Meuse and in the Ormont Woods. On the 14th the 1st Corps took St. Juvin, and the 5th Corps, in hand-to-hand encounters, entered the formidable Kriemhilde line, where the enemy had hoped to check us indefinitely. Later the 5th Corps penetrated further the Kriemhilde line, and the 1st Corps took Champigneulle and the important town of Grandpré. Our dogged offensive was wearing down the enemy, who continued desperately to throw his best troops against us, thus weakening his line in front of our allies and making their advance less difficult.

DIVISIONS IN BELGIUM

Meanwhile we were not only able to continue the battle, but our 37th and 91st Divisions were hastily withdrawn from our front and dispatched to help the French Army in Belgium. Defraining in the neighborhood of Ypres, these divisions advanced by rapid stages to the fighting line and were assigned to adjacent French corps. On Oct. 31, in continuation of the Flanders offensive, they attacked and methodically broke down all enemy resistance. On Nov. 3 the 37th had completed its mission in dividing the

enemy across the Escaut River and firmly established itself along the east bank included in the division zone of action. By a clever flanking movement troops of the 91st Division captured Spitaals Bosschen, a difficult wood extending across the central part of the division sector, reached the Escaut, and penetrated into the town of Audenarde. These divisions received high commendation from their corps commanders for their dash and energy.

MEUSE-ARGONNE—LAST PHASE

On the 23d the 3d and 5th Corps pushed northward to the level of Banthéville. While we continued to press forward and throw back the enemy's violent counterattacks with great loss to him, a regrouping of our forces was under way for the final assault. Evidences of loss of morale by the enemy gave our men more confidence in attack and more fortitude in enduring the fatigue of incessant effort and the hardships of very inclement weather.

With comparatively well-rested divisions, the final advance in the Meuse-Argonne front was begun on Nov. 1. Our increased artillery force acquitted itself magnificently in support of the advance, and the enemy broke before the determined infantry, which, by its persistent fighting of the past weeks and the dash of this attack, had overcome his will to resist. The 3d Corps took Ancreville, Doulecon, and Andevanne, and the 5th Corps took Landres et St. Georges and pressed through successive lines of resistance to Bayonville

and Chennery. On the 2d the 1st Corps joined in the movement, which now became an impetuous onslaught that could not be stayed.

On the 3d advance troops surged forward in pursuit, some by motor trucks, while the artillery pressed along the country roads close behind. The 1st Corps reached Authé and Châtillon-sur-Bar, the 5th Corps, Fosse and Nouart, and the 3d Corps, Halles, penetrating the enemy's line to a depth of twelve miles. Our large-calibre guns had advanced and were skillfully brought into position to fire upon the important lines at Montmedy, Longuyon, and Conflans. Our 3d Corps crossed the Meuse on the 5th, and the other corps, in the full confidence that the day was theirs, eagerly cleared the way of machine guns as they swept northward, maintaining complete co-ordination throughout. On the 6th a division of the 1st Corps reached a point on the Meuse opposite Sedan, twenty-five miles from our line of departure. The strategical goal which was our highest hope was gained. We had cut the enemy's main line of communications, and nothing but surrender or an armistice could save his army from complete disaster.

In all forty enemy divisions had been used against us in the Meuse-Argonne battle. Between Sept. 26 and Nov. 6 we took 26,059 prisoners and 468 guns on this front. Our divisions engaged were the 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th, 26th, 28th, 29th, 32d, 33d, 35th, 37th, 42d, 77th, 78th, 79th, 80th, 82d, 89th, 90th, and 91st. Many of our divisions remained in line for a length of time that required nerves of steel, while others were sent in again after only a few days of rest. The 1st, 5th, 26th, 42d, 77th, 80th, 89th, and 90th were in the line twice. Although some of the divisions were fighting their first battle, they soon became equal to the best.

EAST OF THE MEUSE

On the three days preceding Nov. 10, the 3d, the 2d Colonial, and the 17th French Corps fought a difficult struggle through the Meuse hills south of Stenay and forced the enemy into the plain. Meanwhile, my plans for further use of the American forces contemplated an advance between the Meuse and the Moselle in the direction of Longwy by the First Army, while, at the same time, the Second Army should assure the offensive toward the rich coal fields of Briey. These operations were to be followed by an offensive toward Château-Salins east of the Moselle, thus isolating Metz. Accordingly, attacks on the American front had been ordered, and that of the Second Army was in progress on the morning of Nov. 11 when instructions were received that hostilities should cease at 11 o'clock A. M.

At this moment the line of the American sector, from right to left, began at Port-sur-Seille, thence across the Moselle to Vandières and through the Woevre to Bezonvaux, in the foothills of the Meuse, thence along to the

foothills and through the northern edge of the Woevre forests to the Meuse at Mouzay, thence along the Meuse connecting with the French under Sedan.

RELATIONS WITH THE ALLIES

Co-operation among the Allies has at all times been most cordial. A far greater effort has been put forth by the allied armies and staffs to assist us than could have been expected. The French Government and Army have always stood ready to furnish us with supplies, equipment, and transportation, and to aid us in every way. In the towns and hamlets wherever our troops have been stationed or billeted the French people have everywhere received them more as relatives and intimate friends than as soldiers of a foreign army. For these things words are quite inadequate to express our gratitude. There can be no doubt that the relations growing out of our associations here assure a permanent friendship between the two peoples. Although we have not been so intimately associated with the people of Great Britain, yet their troops and ours when thrown together have always warmly fraternized. The reception of those of our forces who have passed through England and of those who have been stationed there has always been enthusiastic. Altogether it has been deeply impressed upon us that the ties of language and blood bring the British and ourselves together completely and inseparably.

STRENGTH

There are in Europe altogether, including a regiment and some sanitary units with the Italian Army and the organizations at Murmansk, also including those en route from the States, approximately 2,053,347 men, less our losses. Of this total there are in France 1,338,160 combatant troops. Forty divisions have arrived, of which the infantry personnel of ten have been used as replacements, leaving thirty divisions now in France organized into three armies of three corps each.

The losses of the Americans up to Nov. 18 are: Killed and wounded, 36,145; died of disease, 14,811; deaths unclassified, 2,204; wounded, 179,625; prisoners, 2,163; missing, 1,160. We have captured about 44,000 prisoners and 1,400 guns, howitzers, and trench mortars.

COMMENDATION

The duties of the General Staff, as well as those of the army and corps staffs, have been very ably performed. Especially is this true when we consider the new and difficult problems with which they have been confronted. This body of officers, both as individuals and as an organization, has, I believe, no superiors in professional ability, in efficiency, or in loyalty.

Nothing that we have in France better reflects the efficiency and devotion to duty of Americans in general than the Service of

Supply, whose personnel is thoroughly imbued with a patriotic desire to do its full duty. They have at all times fully appreciated their responsibility to the rest of the army, and the results produced have been most gratifying.

Our Medical Corps is especially entitled to praise for the general effectiveness of its work, both in hospital and at the front. Embracing men of high professional attainments, and splendid women devoted to their calling and untiring in their efforts, this department has made a new record for medical and sanitary proficiency.

The Quartermaster Department has had difficult and various tasks, but it has more than met all demands that have been made upon it. Its management and its personnel have been exceptionally efficient and deserve every possible commendation.

As to the more technical services, the able personnel of the Ordnance Department in France has splendidly fulfilled its functions, both in procurement and in forwarding the immense quantities of ordnance required. The officers and men and the young women of the Signal Corps have performed their duties with a large conception of the problem, and with a devoted and patriotic spirit to which the perfection of our communications daily testifies. While the Engineer Corps has been referred to in another part of this report, it should be further stated that the work has required large vision and high professional skill, and great credit is due their personnel for the high proficiency that they have constantly maintained.

Our aviators have no equals in daring or in fighting ability, and have left a record of courageous deeds that will ever remain a brilliant page in the annals of our army. While the Tank Corps has had limited opportunities, its personnel has responded gal-

lantly on every possible occasion, and has shown courage of the highest order.

The Adjutant General's Department has been directed with a systematic thoroughness and excellence that surpassed any previous work of its kind. The Inspector General's Department has risen to the highest standards, and throughout has ably assisted commanders in the enforcement of discipline. The able personnel of the Judge Advocate General's Department has solved with judgment and wisdom the multitude of difficult legal problems, many of them involving questions of great international importance.

It would be impossible in this brief preliminary report to do justice to the personnel of all the different branches of this organization, which I shall cover in detail in a later report.

The navy in European waters has at all times most cordially aided the army, and it is most gratifying to report that there has never before been such perfect co-operation between these two branches of the service.

As to the Americans in Europe not in the military service, it is the greatest pleasure to say that, both in official and in private life, they are intensely patriotic and loyal, and have been invariably sympathetic and helpful to the army.

Finally, I pay the supreme tribute to our officers and soldiers of the line. When I think of their heroism, their patience under hardships, their unflinching spirit of offensive action, I am filled with emotion which I am unable to express. Their deeds are immortal, and they have earned the eternal gratitude of our country.

I am, Mr. Secretary, very respectfully,
JOHN J. PERSHING,
General, Commander in Chief, American Expeditionary Forces.
To the Secretary of War.

Quentin Roosevelt

By LEON HUHNER

As falls the fragment of a mighty star
Into the night, where all was dark before;
A brilliant flash attracting men afar,
Seen but a moment, to be seen no more;
So, in the sky, this youthful warrior bold,
Outlined a brilliant course before he fell,
Turning a silver star to one of gold,
A star to be remembered long and well.
What matters that the fitful course was brief
And vanished swiftly in eternal night?
In such a fall there is no cause for grief,
For souls like these leave trails of golden light,
He spread the glory of his country's fame,
And added lustre to a noble name.

[OFFICIAL]

The British Retreat in 1918

Sir Douglas Haig's Report of Battles in France and Flanders During Germany's Great Offensive

THE British War Office, on Oct. 21, 1918, issued an official dispatch from Field Marshal Sir Douglas Haig describing the operations of the forces under his command during the period following the actions in the vicinity of Cambrai in the first week of December, 1917, down to April 30, 1918. This period included the great German thrust that almost reached Amiens. The dispatch was dated "General Headquarters, July 20, 1918," and its most important passages are as follows:

The broad facts of the change which took place in the general war situation at the close of 1917, and the causes which led to it, have long been well known and need be referred to but shortly.

The disappearance of Russia as a belligerent country on the side of the Entente Powers had set free the great bulk of the German and Austrian divisions on the eastern front. Already at the beginning of November, 1917, the transfer of German divisions from the Russian to the western front had begun. It became certain that the movement would be continued steadily until numerical superiority lay with the enemy.

It was to be expected, moreover, that large numbers of guns and munitions formerly in the possession of the Russian armies would fall into the hands of our enemies, and at some future date would be turned against the Allies.

Although the growing army of the United States of America might be expected eventually to restore the balance in our favor, a considerable period of time would be required to enable that army to develop its full strength. While it would be possible for Germany to complete her new dispositions early in the new year, the forces which America could send to France before the season would permit active operations to be recommenced would not be large.

In view of the situation described above, it became necessary to change the policy governing the conduct of the operations of the British armies in France. Orders accordingly were issued early in December having for their object immediate preparation to meet a strong and sustained hostile offensive. In other words, a defensive policy was adopted, and all necessary arrangements consequent

thereon were put in hand with the least possible delay. * * *

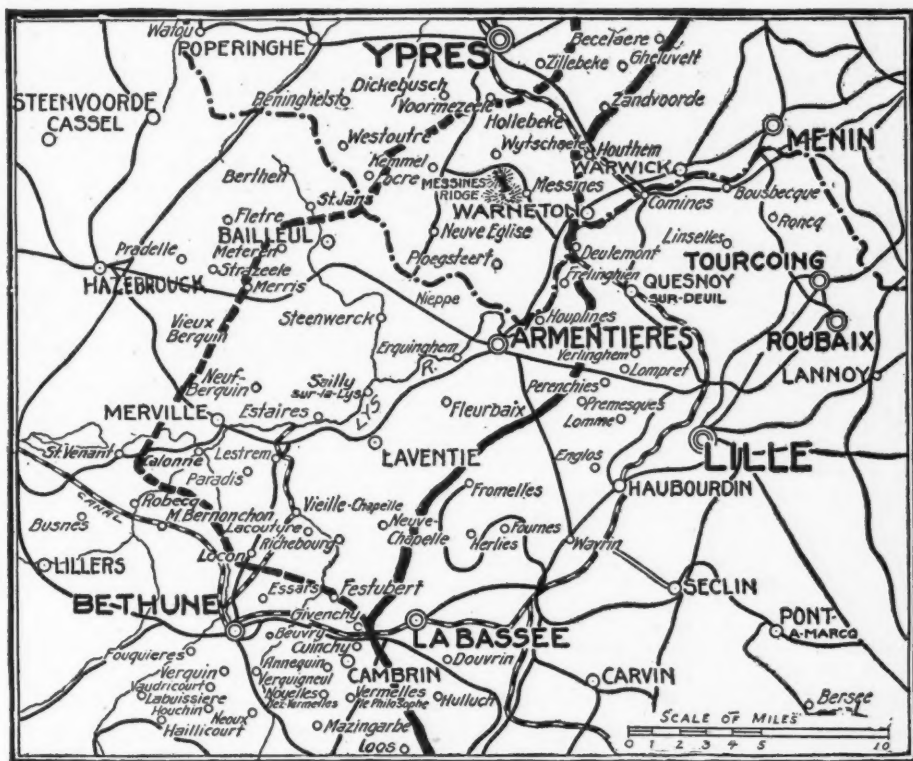
PREPARATIONS FOR DEFENSE

Orders issued early in December, as stated above, had defined the defensive policy to be adopted and the methods of defense. A vast amount of work was required to be done in the construction of defenses, old systems had to be remodeled and new systems created. The construction of new communications and the extension of old, more especially in the area southeast of Arras, which the enemy had devastated in his retirement last year, involved the building of a number of additional roads and the laying out of railways, both narrow and normal gauge. Work of this nature was particularly necessary on the Somme battlefield and in the area recently taken over from the French.

All available men of the fighting units, with the exception of a very small proportion undergoing training, and all labor units were employed on these tasks. Though the time and labor available were in no way adequate if, as was suspected, the enemy intended to commence his offensive operations in the early Spring, a large portion of the work was in fact completed before the enemy launched his great attack. That so much was accomplished is due to the untiring energy of all ranks of the fighting units, the Transportation Service, and the Labor Corps.

The first of the enemy's minor attacks took place on Dec. 12 in the neighborhood of Bullecourt, and after sharp fighting led to the loss of a point of the salient held by us east of that village, with a consequent shortening of our line. Other local attacks on Dec. 14 and 22 at Polderhoek Château and astride the Ypres-Staden railway also resulted in small and unimportant withdrawals of portions of our outpost line in these localities.

On Dec. 30 a somewhat more serious attempt was made by the enemy against our positions on Welsh Ridge, on the Cambrai front. The attack, made in the early morning on a front of over two miles from La Vacquerie northward toward Marcoing, was delivered in considerable strength, and elaborate precautions were taken by the enemy to effect surprise. South of Marcoing, the enemy gained possession of a somewhat isolated trench sited on the northern slopes of Welsh Ridge, compelling our troops to fall back to a sunken road lying across the base



THE FLANDERS SALIENT PRODUCED BY THE GERMAN DRIVE OF 1918, WHICH PUSHED THE BRITISH BACK FROM THE BLACK LINE TO THE DOTTED LINE

of the salient, where they organized a successful resistance.

THE ENEMY'S PREPARATIONS

Toward the middle of February, 1918, it became evident that the enemy was preparing for a big offensive on the western front. It was known from various sources that he had been steadily increasing his forces in the western theatre since the beginning of November, 1917. In three and a half months twenty-eight infantry divisions had been transferred from the eastern theatre and six infantry divisions from the Italian theatre. There were reports that further reinforcements were on their way to the west, and it was also known that the enemy had greatly increased his heavy artillery in the western theatre during the same period. These reinforcements were more than were necessary for defense, as they were moved at a time when the distribution of food and fuel to the civil population in Germany was rendered extremely difficult through lack of rolling stock. I concluded that the enemy intended to attack at an early date.

Constant air reconnaissances over the enemy's lines showed that rail and road communications were being improved and ammunition and supply dumps increased along the whole front from Flanders to the Oise.

By the end of February, 1918, these preparations had become very marked opposite the front held by the Third and Fifth British Armies, and I considered it probable that the enemy would make his initial effort from the Sensée River southward. As March 21 approached it became certain that an attack on this sector was imminent, and counter-preparation was carried out nightly by our artillery on the threatened front. By March 21 the number of German infantry divisions in the western theatre had risen to 192, an increase of forty-six since Nov. 1, 1917.

ON THE EVE OF ATTACK

On March 19 my Intelligence Department reported that the final stages of the enemy's preparations on the Arras-St. Quentin front were approaching completion, and that from information obtained it was probable that the actual attack would be launched on March 20 or 21. On our side our dispositions to meet the expected offensive were as complete as the time and troops available could make them.

The general principle of our defensive arrangements on the fronts of these armies was the distribution of our troops in depth. With this object three defensive belts, sited at considerable distances from each other, had been constructed or were approaching

completion in the forward area, the most advanced of which was in the nature of a lightly held outpost screen covering our main positions. On the morning of the attack the troops detailed to man these various defenses were all in position.

Behind the forward defenses of the Fifth Army, and in view of the smaller resources which could be placed at the disposal of that army, arrangements had been made for the construction of a strong and carefully sited bridgehead position covering Péronne and the crossings of the River Somme south of that town. Considerable progress had been made in the laying out of this position, though at the outbreak of the enemy's offensive its defenses were incomplete.

From the information at my disposal, it was expected that the enemy's heaviest attack would fall between the Sensée River and the neighborhood of the Bapaume-Cambrai road, and on this front of some 16,000 yards eighteen German divisions are known to have been employed in line and in immediate reserve on March 21. It was correctly anticipated that the Flesquières salient itself would not be directly attacked in strength, but that the attack would be continued in great force from the southern flank of the salient to St. Quentin. On this front of some 48,000 yards, from Gouzeaucourt to the Oise River at Moy, forty German divisions were set in motion on the first day.

An event which, having regard to the nature of the ground, was not considered probable, was that the enemy would be able to extend the flank of his attack in any considerable strength beyond Moy. The rapid drying of the marshes, due to an exceptionally dry Spring, in fact enabled the enemy to attack this lightly held front with three fresh divisions, in addition to the three divisions already in line.

COMPARISON OF FORCES

In all at least sixty-four German divisions took part in the operations of the first day of the battle, a number considerably exceeding the total forces composing the entire British Army in France. The majority of these divisions had spent many weeks and even months in concentrated training for offensive operations, and had reached a high pitch of technical excellence in the attack.

To meet this assault the Third Army disposed of eight divisions in line on the front of the enemy's initial attack, with seven divisions available in reserve. The Fifth Army disposed of fourteen divisions and three cavalry divisions, of which three infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions were in reserve. The total British force on the original battlefield, therefore, on the morning of March 21 was twenty-nine infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions, of which nineteen infantry divisions were in line.

Launched on a front of about fifty-four miles on March 21, the area of the German offensive spread northward on March 28,

until from La Fère to beyond Gavrelle some sixty-three miles of our former line were involved. On this front a total of seventy-three German divisions were engaged during March against the Third and Fifth Armies and the right of the First Army, and were opposed in the first place by twenty-two British infantry divisions in line, with twelve infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions in close reserve.

As soon as it became evident that the enemy had thrown practically the whole of his striking force against this one battlefield, it became both possible and necessary to collect additional reserves from the remainder of my front and hurry them to the battlefield. Plans previously drawn up to meet such an eventuality were put into execution at once, and before the end of March, by which date the principal German effort had been broken, a further force of eight British divisions was brought south and sent into the fight. Prior to April 9 four other British divisions were engaged, making a total of forty-six British infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions employed on the Somme battlefield.

THE ATTACK OPENED

Shortly before 5 A. M. on March 21 a bombardment of great intensity, with gas and high explosive shell from all natures of artillery and trench mortars, was opened against practically the whole fronts of the Fifth and Third Armies from the Oise to the Scarpe River, while road centres and railways as far back as St. Pol were engaged by high velocity guns. Violent bombardments were opened also on the French front in wide sectors east and northeast of Rheims and on portions of the British front between the Scarpe River and Lens. Our positions from south of La Bassée Canal to the River Lys were heavily shelled with gas, and battery areas between Messines and the Ypres-Comines Canal were actively engaged. Dunkirk was bombarded from the sea.

The hour of the enemy's assault varied in different sectors, but by about 9:45 A. M. a general attack had been launched on a battlefield of fifty-four miles between the Oise and Sensée Rivers. Later in the day, as visibility improved, large numbers of low-flying airplanes attacked our troops and batteries.

Favored by a thick white fog, which hid from our artillery and machine gunners the S O S signals sent up by our outpost line, and in numbers which made loss of direction impossible, the attacking German infantry forced their way into our foremost defensive zone. Until 1 P. M. the fog made it impossible to see more than fifty yards in any direction, and the machine guns and forward field guns which had been disposed so as to cover this zone with their fire were robbed almost entirely of their effect. The detachments holding the outpost positions

were consequently overwhelmed or surrounded, in many cases before they were able to pass back information concerning the enemy's attack.

The attack being expected, reserves had been brought forward and battle stations manned. On all parts of the battlefield garrisons of redoubts and strong points in the forward zone held out with the utmost gallantry for many hours. From some of them wireless messages were received up to a late hour in the day, giving information of much value. The losses which they were able to inflict upon the enemy were undoubtedly very great and materially delayed his advance. The prolonged defense of these different localities, under conditions which left little hope of any relief, deserves to rank among the most heroic actions in the history of the British Army.

So intense was the enemy's bombardment that at an early hour our communications were severed, and so swift was his advance under the covering blanket of the mist that certain of our more advanced batteries found the German infantry close upon them before they had received warning from their own infantry that the expected attack had been launched. Many gallant deeds were performed by the personnel of such batteries, and on numerous occasions heavy losses were inflicted on bodies of hostile troops by guns firing over open sights at point-blank range.

SITUATION AT MIDDAY

At midday the enemy's infantry had reached the first line of our battle positions in strength on practically the whole front of his attack, except at the Flesquières salient, where his assaults were not pressed with the same weight as elsewhere. Save in the neighborhood of Ronssoy, however, and at certain other points in a less serious degree, our battle positions themselves had not been entered, while at numerous localities in front of them fierce fighting was taking place around strong points still occupied by our troops.

Assisted by the long spell of dry weather, hostile infantry had crossed the river and canal north of La Fère, and south of St. Quentin had penetrated into the battle zone between Essigny and Benay. At Maissemy also our battle positions were entered at about noon, but the vigorous resistance of the 61st and 24th Divisions, assisted by troops of the 1st Cavalry Division, prevented the enemy from developing his success.

On the Third Army front also the attack had succeeded by midday in breaking into the battle zone at certain points, and heavy fighting was taking place all along the line from the Canal du Nord northwestward to the Sensée River. Astride the canal the enemy was held up by the 17th Division, under command of Major Gen. P. R. Robertson, C. B., C. M. G., and made no

progress. Further west he had entered Doignies and had taken Louveral. In Lagnicourt and to the south of it the 6th Division, under command of Major Gen. T. O. Marden, C. M. G., were still maintaining a gallant fight for the possession of the first line of their battle positions; but beyond that village the battle zone had been entered at Noreuil, Longatte, and Ecoust St. Mein, all of which places had fallen into the enemy's hands.

At the end of the first day the enemy had made very considerable progress, but he was still firmly held in the battle zone in which it had been anticipated that the real struggle would take place. Nowhere had he effected that immediate break-through for which his troops had been training for many weeks, and such progress as he had made had been bought at a cost which had already greatly reduced his chances of carrying out his ultimate purpose.

THE FIRST WITHDRAWALS

In view of the progress made by the enemy south of St. Quentin, the thinness of our line on that front, and the lack of reserves with which to restore the situation in our battle positions, the Fifth Army commander decided on the evening of March 21, after consultation with the G. O. C., 3d Corps, to withdraw the divisions of that corps behind the Crozat Canal. The movement involved the withdrawal of the 36th Division, on the right of the 18th Corps, to the line of the Somme Canal.

The enemy's advance south and north of the Flesquières salient rendered a withdrawal by the 5th Corps and by the 9th Division on its right necessary also. Orders were accordingly issued to the divisions concerned for a line to be taken up, as a first stage, along the high ground known as Highland Ridge, and thence westward along the Hindenburg line to Havrincourt and Hermies.

These different withdrawals were carried out successfully during the night. The bridges across the Crozat and Somme Canals were destroyed, though in some cases not with entire success, it being probable that certain of them were still practicable for infantry. Instances of great bravery occurred in the destruction of these bridges. In one case, when the electrical connection for firing the demolition charge had failed, the officer responsible for the destruction of the bridge personally lit the instantaneous fuse and blew up the bridge. Many of the bridges were destroyed in the close presence of the enemy.

As by this time it had become clear that practically the whole of the enemy's striking force had been committed to this one battle, my plans, already referred to, for collecting reserves from other parts of the British front were put into immediate execution. By drawing away local reserves and thinning out the front not attacked, it was

possible, as pointed out above, to reinforce the battle by eight divisions before the end of the month. Steps were taken also to set in operation at once the schemes previously agreed upon with the French for taking over a portion of the battlefield.

On the morning of March 22 the ground was again enveloped in thick mist, under cover of which the enemy renewed his attacks in great strength all along the line. Fighting was again very heavy, and short-range fire from guns, rifles, and machine guns caused enormous losses to the enemy's troops. The weight of this attack, however, combined with the impossibility of observing beforehand and engaging with artillery the massing of his troops, enabled him to press forward.

In the south the enemy advanced during the morning as far as the line of the canal at Jussy, and a fierce struggle commenced for the passage of the canal, his troops bringing up trench mortars and machine guns, and endeavoring to cross on rafts under cover of their fire. At 1 P. M. he succeeded in effecting a crossing at Quessy, and made progress during the afternoon in the direction of Vouel. His further advance in this sector, however, was delayed by the gallant resistance of troops of the 58th Division, under command of Major Gen. A. B. E. Cator, D. S. O., at Tergnier, and it was not until evening, after many costly attempts and much sanguinary fighting, that the enemy gained possession of this village. * * *

FIFTH ARMY RETREATS

With Malsesmy already in the enemy's hands, the fall of Le Verguier greatly weakened the defense of the centre of the Fifth Army. The rear line of our battle positions was held during the morning, [March 22,] in spite of unceasing pressure from large hostile forces, but as the day wore on the great concentration of German divisions attacking west of St. Quentin had its effect. During the early afternoon our troops east of Holnon Wood were forced to withdraw from their battle zone trenches; while after repulsing heavy attacks throughout the morning, the 50th Division was again attacked during the afternoon and evening and compelled to give ground. Our troops, fighting fiercely and continuously, were gradually forced out of the battle zone on the whole of this front, and fell back through the 20th Division, under command of Major Gen. W. D. Smith, C. B., and the 50th Division holding the third defensive zone between Happencourt, Villeveque, and Boucly, in the hope of reorganizing behind them.

In this fighting the action of the 1st Battalion Royal Inniskilling Fusiliers, 36th Division, deserves special mention. This battalion held a redoubt in the forward zone near Fontaine-les-Clercs throughout the whole of the first day of the battle, and on the following day, after the troops on their right had withdrawn in accordance with or-

ders, still maintained their position, although surrounded by the enemy. After a magnificent fight, in which all the enemy's attacks were repulsed with great loss, at 3 P. M. the officer commanding the battalion sent back a small party of troops, who succeeded in getting through to our lines. The remainder of the battalion continued the fight to the end.

By 5:30 P. M. the enemy had reached the third zone at different points, and was attacking the 50th Division heavily between Villeveque and Boucly. Though holding an extended front of some 10,500 yards, the division succeeded in checking the enemy's advance, and by a successful counterattack drove him temporarily from the village of Coulaincourt. At the close of the engagement, however, the troops of the 50th Division about Pœuilly had been forced back, and by continued pressure along the south bank of the Omignon River the enemy had opened a gap between their right flank and the troops of the 61st Division, under command of Major Gen. C. J. Mackenzie, C. B., and of the 20th Division further south. At this gap, during the late afternoon and evening, strong bodies of German troops broke through the third defensive zone about Vaux and Beauvois.

All available reserves at the disposal of the Fifth Army had already been thrown into the fight, and except for one French division and some French cavalry in the 3d Corps area no further support was within reach of the fighting line. There remained, therefore, no course open but to fall back on the bridgehead positions east of the Somme.

On the Third Army front, also, certain necessary readjustments of our line were carried out during the night. On the right, the evacuation of the Flesquières salient was continued, our troops withdrawing to a line covering Equancourt and Metz-en-Couture in touch with the Fifth Army about Equancourt. In the centre, the troops still in advance of the third defensive zone were brought back to that system. On the left, our troops withdrew from the remainder of their forward positions south of the Scarpe, taking up the rear line of their battle positions between Henin-sur-Cojeul and Famoux.

As on the southern portion of the battlefield, the enemy followed up our troops closely, except on the left, where for a time he was unaware of what we had done. Elsewhere, more or less continuous fighting took place throughout the night, and in the early morning parties of the enemy succeeded in finding a gap in our new line about Mory.

FRENCH FRONT EXTENDED

[After recording his decision to abandon the Péronne bridgehead and describing the enemy's crossing of the Crozat Canal and the Somme River at Ham, Sir Douglas briefly tells of the retreat to the Tortille, and continues:]

From the time when the indications of an offensive on my front first became definite I had been in close touch with the Commander in Chief of the French Armies. On different occasions, as the battle developed, I discussed with him the situation and the policy to be followed by the allied armies. As the result of a meeting held in the afternoon of March 23, arrangements were made for the French to take over as rapidly as possible the front held by the Fifth Army south of Péronne, and for the concentration of a strong force of French divisions on the southern portion of the battlefield.

For my own part, after consultation with the First and Second Army commanders, General Sir H. S. Horne, K. C. B., K. C. M. G., and General Sir H. C. O. Plumer, G. C. B., G. C. M. G., G. C. V. O., concerning the situation on the fronts of their armies and the possibilities of attacks developing there also, I arranged for the formation from the troops under their command of a special force of reserve divisions for action as occasion might demand. Measures were also taken to permit of the employment of the Canadian corps for counterattack, in the event of the enemy's succeeding in piercing my front.

In this connection I desire to express my deep appreciation of the complete unselfishness with which the needs of their own fronts were at all times subordinated by the army commanders to the more pressing demands of the battle. A variety of considerations made it necessary for me at this date to draw particularly heavily upon the resources of the Second Army. All my demands were met by the Second Army commander in the most helpful and disinterested spirit.

The enemy's advance at the junction of the Third and Fifth Armies was not made without heavy sacrifice. In the retirement of our troops there was no panic of any sort. Units retreated stubbornly from one position to another as they found them turned and threatened with isolation; but at many points fierce engagements were fought, and wherever the enemy attempted a frontal attack he was beaten off with loss.

During the early part of the morning troops of the 17th Division drove off four attacks east of Barastre, and the 47th Division held the village of Rocquigny from sunrise until well into the afternoon, beating off all attacks with rifle and machine-gun fire, until the enemy worked round their flank between Rocquigny and Le Transloy and forced them to withdraw.

South of this point, however, the enemy pressed forward rapidly through the gap which he had made, and succeeded in isolating a part of the South African Brigade, 9th Division, near Marrières Wood, north of Cléry. These troops maintained a most gallant resistance until 4:30 P. M., when they had fired off all their ammunition, and only about 100 men remained unwounded. Early in the afternoon German infantry entered

Combles, and, having gained the high ground at Morval, were advancing toward Les Boeufs. Their continued progress threatened to sever the connection between the Fifth and Third Armies, and the situation was serious.

FIGHT FOR SOMME CROSSINGS

South of Péronne the night of March 23-24 passed comparatively quietly, but with the dawn powerful attempts were made by the enemy to force the crossings of the Somme. At Pargny the enemy succeeded in maintaining himself on the west bank of the river, and the flanks of the 8th and 20th Divisions were no longer in touch. During the remainder of the day the enemy repeated his attacks at these and other points, and also exercised strong pressure in a westerly and southwesterly direction from Ham. Our troops offered vigorous resistance, and opposite Ham a successful counterattack by the 15th (Pioneer) Battalion, Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry, 61st Division, materially delayed his advance. At nightfall the line of the river north of Epenancourt was still held by us, but the gap opposite Pargny had been enlarged, and the enemy had reached Morchain. South of that point the 20th Division, with its left flank in the air, and having exhausted all reserves in a series of gallant and successful counterattacks, fell back during the afternoon to the line of the Libermont Canal, to which position the great weight of the enemy's attacks from Ham had already pressed back the troops on its right.

South of the Somme the situation was less satisfactory. The greater portion of the defensive line along the river and canal had been lost, and that which was still held by us was endangered by the progress made by the enemy north of the Somme. All local reserves had already been put into the fight, and there was no immediate possibility of sending further British troops to the assistance of the divisions in line. On the other hand, the French forces engaged were increasing steadily, and on this day our allies assumed responsibility for the battlefield south of the Somme, with general control of the British troops operating in that sector. The situation still remained critical, however, for every mile of the German advance added to the length of front to be held, and, while the exhaustion of my divisions was hourly growing more acute, some days had yet to pass before the French could bring up troops in sufficient strength to arrest the enemy's progress.

TROOPS EXHAUSTED

On the Fifth Army front, also, fighting had recommenced at an early hour. Hostile attacks at Licourt and to the south of it widened the gap between the 18th and 19th Corps, and the enemy entered Nesle, forcing the French and British troops back to the high ground on the south bank of the Ingon River, southwest of the town. To the south

of this point his troops crossed the Libermont Canal, while to the north the right of the 19th Corps was slowly pushed back in the direction of Chaulnes. Our troops were withdrawn during the evening to the general line Hattencourt-Estées-Frise, the 30th Division delivering a counterattack south of Biaches to cover the withdrawal in that area.

The whole of the troops holding the British line south of the Somme were now greatly exhausted, and the absence of reserves behind them gave ground for considerable anxiety. As the result of a conference held by the Fifth Army commander on March 25, a mixed force, including details, stragglers, schools personnel, tunneling companies, army troops companies, field survey companies, and Canadian and American engineers, had been got together and organized by General Grant, the Chief Engineer of the Fifth Army. On March 26 these were posted by General Grant, in accordance with orders given by the Fifth Army commander, on the line of the old Amiens defenses between Mézières, Marcelcave, and Hamel. Subsequently, as General Grant could ill be spared from his proper duties, he was directed to hand over command of his force to General Carey. Except for General Carey's force there were no reinforcements of any kind behind the divisions which had been fighting for the most part continuously since the opening of the battle. A very gallant feat of arms was performed on this day by a detachment of about 100 officers and men of the 61st Brigade, 20th Division, at Le Quesney. The detachment was detailed to cover the withdrawal of their division, and under the command of their Brigade Major, Captain E. P. Combe, M. C., successfully held the enemy at bay from early morning until 6 o'clock at night, when the eleven survivors withdrew.

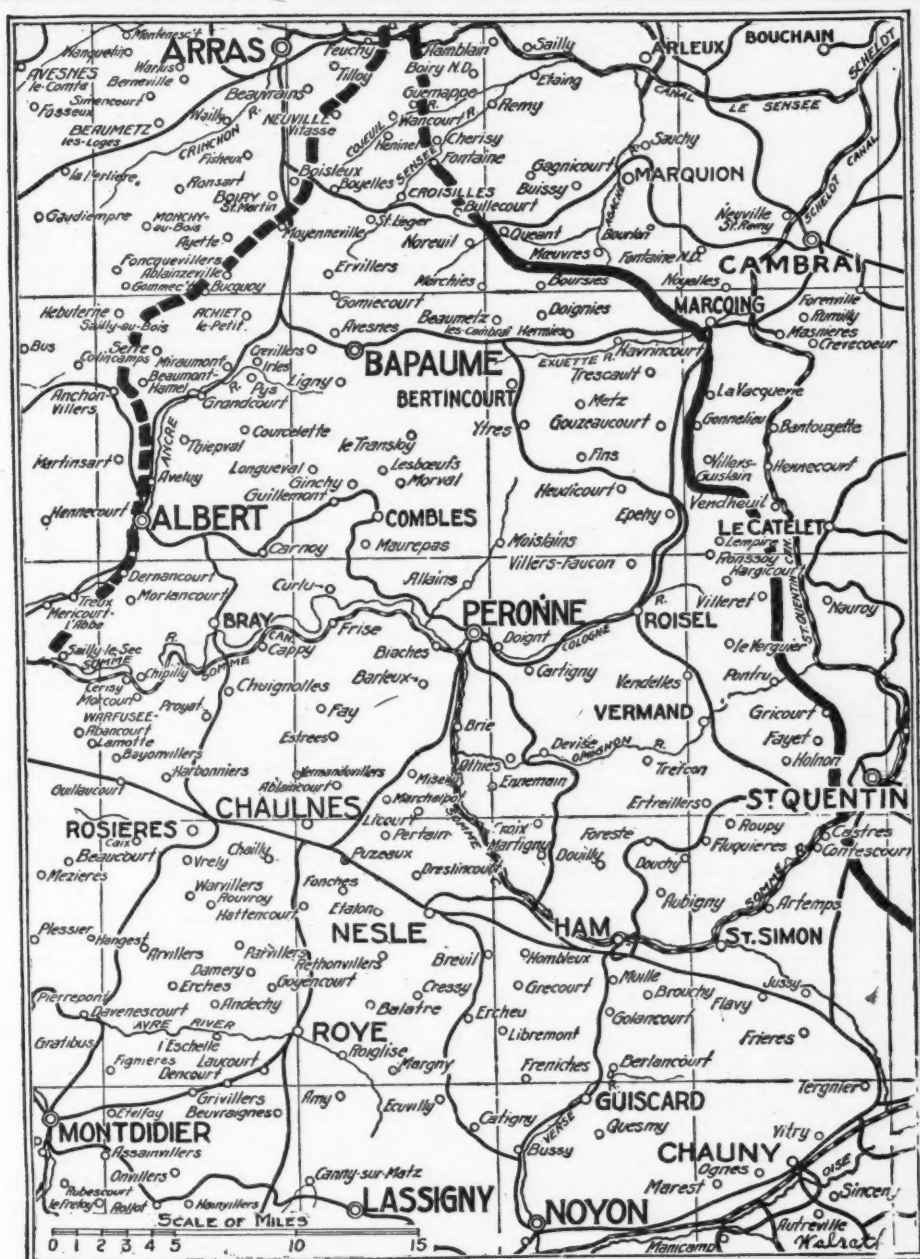
NORTHERN ADVANCE STOPPED

Meanwhile, north of the Somme the battle was entering upon its final stages though the enemy's effort was not yet fully spent and his troops were still capable of powerful attacks. During the morning of March 26 our troops continued the taking up of the Ancre line without much interference from the enemy, but between Hamel and Puisieux the situation was not yet clear. A gap still existed in this area between the 5th and 4th Corps, through which bodies of German infantry worked their way forward and occupied Colincamps with machine guns. These machine guns were silenced by a section of field artillery of the 2d Division, which gallantly galloped into action and engaged them over open sights. Early in the afternoon troops of the New Zealand Division, under command of Major Gen. Sir A. H. Russell, K. C. B., K. C. M. G., retook Colincamps, while a brigade of the 4th Australian Division, Major Gen. E. G. Sinclair-Maclagan, C. B., D. S. O., commanding the division, filled the gap between Hébuterne and Bucquoy. In the fighting in this area

our light tanks came into action for the first time and did valuable service. With the arrival of fresh troops our line on this part of the front became stable, and all attempts made by the enemy during the day to drive in our positions about Bucquoy and to the north were repulsed.

South of the Somme, meanwhile, the enemy had recommended his attacks at about 8:30 A. M., on the greater part of the Fifth Army front and against the French. The line occupied by our troops at this time, had it been maintained, would have preserved Amiens from serious bombardment, and orders were issued that every effort was to be made to hold our positions. In the fighting which followed, troops of all divisions, despite the weakness of their numbers and the tremendous strain through which they had already gone, displayed a courage and determination in their defense for which no praise can be too high. At 10 A. M. the 8th Division at Rosières had already repulsed a heavy attack, and the enemy was pressing hard against our positions in the neighborhood of Proyart. The results of the unfortunate withdrawal from Bray now became apparent. The enemy was not slow to take advantage of the position held by him along the north bank of the Somme, in the rear of our troops, and, in spite of our efforts to destroy or hold the river crossings, began to pass strong parties of infantry to the south bank at Cerisy. Being heavily attacked in front, and with bodies of the enemy established south of the river in their immediate rear, our troops at Proyart and to the north were compelled to fall back. The enemy gained Framerville, Proyart, and Morcourt, and endeavored to advance southward behind our line.

In view of the absence of reserves behind this front other than the composite force already referred to, the situation was serious. Troops of the 1st Cavalry Division were hurled across the river and occupied Bouzencourt, in which neighborhood they had sharp fighting. A very gallant and successful counterattack carried out with great dash by the 2d Battalion Devon Regiment and the 22d (Pioneer) Battalion Durham Light Infantry, both of the 8th Division, (which was itself heavily engaged at the time at Rosières,) supported by troops of the 50th Division, at this date under command of Major Gen. H. C. Jackson, D. S. O., held up the enemy a short distance southwest of Proyart. A counterattack by the 66th Division restored the situation about Framerville, and at nightfall our troops were still east and north of Harbonnières, whence our line ran northwestward to Bouzencourt. South of Harbonnières, the 8th Division held the village of Rosières against all attacks, and killed great numbers of the enemy. South of this point, as far as Arvillers, troops of the 24th, 30th, and 20th Divisions maintained their positions substantially unchanged throughout the day, though beyond



REGION OF THE GREAT GERMAN ADVANCE IN PICARDY, MARCH, 1918. THE HEAVY BLACK LINE SHOWS THE BEGINNING, AND THE BROKEN LINE THE END OF THE ADVANCE, WHICH REACHED A FEW MILES WEST OF MONTDIDIER, NEAR AMIENS.

their right flank the enemy passed Davencourt and captured Montdidier.

Meanwhile, between 7 and 8 A. M. on the morning of March 28, fighting of the utmost intensity had broken out north of the Somme from Puisieux to northeast of Arras. Finding himself checked on the northern flank of his attack, the enemy on this day made a

determined effort to obtain greater freedom for the development of his offensive, and struck in great force along the valley of the Scarpe at Arras. This development of the battle, which had been foreseen as early as March 23, involved the right of the 13th Corps, under command of Lieut. Gen. Sir H. de B. de Lisle, K. C. B., D. S. O., on the

right of the First Army, and represented a considerable extension of the original front of attack. A German success in this sector might well have had far-reaching effects. There is little doubt that the enemy hoped to achieve great results by this new stroke and that its failure was a serious setback to his plans. According to captured documents, the enemy's immediate object was to gain the general line Vimy-Bailleul-St. Laurent-Blangy, when three special assault divisions were to carry the Vimy Ridge on the following day. Immediately south of the Scarpe four German divisions were engaged, to two of which were assigned the tasks of capturing Arras and the heights overlooking the town. This assault, the weight of which fell on the 3d and 15th British Divisions, Major Gen. H. L. Reed, V. C., C. B., C. M. G., commanding the latter division, was supported by powerful attacks, in which eleven hostile divisions were engaged, along our whole front southward to beyond Bucquoy.

The weight and momentum of his assault and the courage of his infantry, who sought to cut their way through our wire by hand under the fire of our machine guns, sufficed to carry the enemy through the gaps which his bombardment had made in our outpost line. Thereafter, raked by the fire of our outposts, whose garrisons turned their machine guns and shot at the enemy's advancing lines from flank and rear, and met by an accurate and intense fire from all arms, his troops were everywhere stopped and thrown back with the heaviest loss before our battle positions. A second attack, launched late in the afternoon north of the Scarpe, after a further period of bombardment, was also repulsed at all points. At the end of the day our battle positions astride the Scarpe were intact on the whole front of the attack, and in the evening successful counterattacks enabled us to push out a new outpost line in front of them.

With this day's battle, which ended in the complete defeat of the enemy on the whole front of his attack, the first stage of the enemy's offensive weakened, and eventually closed on April 5.

HOW HAZEBROUCK WAS SAVED

[Dealing with the Lys battle and the enemy's thrust toward Hazebrouck, the dispatch describes in glowing terms the stand of the British divisions north of Merville on April 11.]

Meanwhile, a situation which threatened to become serious had arisen north of Merville. At about 8 A. M. the enemy attacked in great strength on a front extending from south of the Estaires-Vieux Berquin road to the neighborhood of Steenwerck. After very heavy fighting, in the course of which the 1st Battalion Royal Guernsey Light Infantry, 29th Division, Major Gen. D. E. Cayley, C. M. G., commanding the division, did gallant service, he succeeded in the afternoon in overcoming the resistance of our troops

about Doulleu and La Becque, forcing them back in a northwesterly direction. As the result of this movement, a gap was formed in our line southwest of Bailleul, and bodies of the enemy who had forced their way through seized Outtersteene and Merris.

In the evening a brigade of the 33d Division, Major Gen. R. J. Pinney, C. B., commanding the division, with a body of cyclists, a pioneer battalion, and every available man from schools and reinforcement camps, came into action in this sector. On their left, troops of the 25th, 34th, and 39th Divisions, Major Gen. N. J. G. Cameron, C. B., C. M. G., commanding the last mentioned division, though heavily attacked, maintained their positions to the south and southeast of Bailleul, and before midnight our line had been reformed.

Next day the enemy followed up his attacks with great vigor, and the troops of the 29th and 31st Divisions, now greatly reduced in strength by the severe fighting already experienced and strung out over a front of nearly 10,000 yards east of the Forêt de Nieppe, were once more tried to the utmost. Behind them the 1st Australian Division, under command of Major Gen. Sir H. B. Walker, K. C. B., D. S. O., was in process of detraining, and the troops were told that the line was to be held at all costs until the detraining could be completed.

During the morning, which was very foggy, several determined attacks, in which a German armored car came into action against the 4th Guards Brigade on the southern portion of our line, were repulsed with great loss to the enemy. After the failure of these assaults he brought up field guns to point-blank range, and in the northern sector with their aid gained Vieux Berquin. Everywhere except at Vieux Berquin the enemy's advance was held up all day by desperate fighting, in which our advanced posts displayed the greatest gallantry, maintaining their ground when entirely surrounded, men standing back to back in the trenches and shooting to front and rear.

In the afternoon the enemy made a further determined effort, and by sheer weight of numbers forced his way through the gaps in our depleted line, the surviving garrisons of our posts fighting where they stood to the last with bullet and bayonet. The heroic resistance of these troops, however, had given the leading brigades of the 1st Australian Division time to reach and organize their appointed line east of the Forêt de Nieppe. These now took up the fight, and the way to Hazebrouck was definitely closed.

The performance of all the troops engaged in this most gallant stand, and especially that of the 4th Guards Brigade, on whose front of some 4,000 yards the heaviest attacks fell, is worthy of the highest praise. No more brilliant exploit has taken place since the opening of the enemy's offensive, though gallant actions have been without number.

The action of these troops, and indeed of all

the divisions engaged in the fighting in the Lys Valley, is the more noteworthy because, as already pointed out, practically the whole of them had been brought straight out of the Somme battlefield, where they had suffered severely and had been subjected to a great strain. All these divisions, without adequate rest and filled with young reinforcements which they had had no time to assimilate, were again hurriedly thrown into the fight, and, in spite of the great disadvantages under which they labored, succeeded in holding up the advance of greatly superior forces of fresh troops. Such an accomplishment reflects the greatest credit on the youth of Great Britain, as well as upon those responsible for the training of the young soldiers sent out from home at this time.

TASK OF BRITISH ARMIES

It has been seen that in the Somme battle, by the end of March, in addition to some ten German divisions engaged against the French, a total of seventy-three German divisions were engaged and fought to a standstill by forty-two British infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions. In order to complete the comparison between the forces engaged, and to enable the nature of the task accomplished by our troops to be realized, it will be of value to give similar figures for the battle of the Lys.

In the Lys battle, prior to April 30 the enemy engaged against the British forces a total of forty-two divisions, of which thirty-three were fresh and nine had fought previously on the Somme. Against these forty-two German divisions twenty-five British divisions were employed, of which eight were fresh and seventeen had taken a prominent part in the Somme battle.

In the six weeks of almost constant fighting, from March 21 to April 30, a total of fifty-five British infantry divisions and three cavalry divisions was employed on the battlefronts against a force of 109 different German divisions. During this period a total of 141 different German divisions were engaged against the combined British and French forces.

The splendid qualities displayed by all ranks and services throughout the Somme and Lys battles make it possible to view with confidence whatever further tests the future may bring.

On March 21 the troops of the Fifth and Third Armies had the glory of sustaining the first and heaviest blow of the German offensive. Though assailed by a concentration of hostile forces which the enemy might well have considered overwhelming, they held up the German attack at all points for the greater part of two days, thereby rendering a service to their country and to the allied cause the value of which cannot be overestimated. Thereafter, through many days of heavy and continuous rearguard fighting, they succeeded in presenting a barrier to the enemy's advance until such time

as the arrival of British and French reinforcements enabled his progress to be checked.

In the battle of the Lys, as has been pointed out above, many of the same divisions which had just passed through the furnace of the Somme found themselves exposed to the full fury of a second great offensive by fresh German forces. Despite this disadvantage they gave evidence in many days of close and obstinate fighting that their spirit was as high as ever and their courage and determination unabated. Both by them and by the divisions freshly engaged every yard of ground was fiercely disputed, until troops were overwhelmed or ordered to withdraw. Such withdrawals as were deemed necessary in the course of the battle were carried out successfully and in good order.

At no time, either on the Somme or on the Lys, was there anything approaching a breakdown of command or a failure of morale.

TRIBUTE TO AMERICANS

[The dispatch pays high tributes to all arms and services, to the work of the artillery, the Royal Air Force, the tanks, the Machine Gun Corps, the engineers, signalers, Royal Army Medical Corps, and the staff, and concludes with this reference to Britain's allies and to America's first fighting units:]

I cannot close this report without paying my personal tribute to the ready and effective assistance given me by the French and Belgian higher command in the course of the Somme and Lys battles. Reference has already been made to the schemes for mutual co-operation and assistance between the French and British Armies which formed so important a part of the allied plan for the year's campaign. These schemes have been carried out with absolute loyalty. The support rendered by French troops south of the Somme and north of the Lys, and by Belgian troops in taking over the responsibility for the greater part of the line previously held by British troops north of Ypres, has been of incalculable value.

I desire also to express my appreciation of the services rendered by the Portuguese troops who had held a sector of my front continuously throughout the Winter months, and on April 9 were called upon to withstand the assault of greatly superior forces.

Finally, I am glad to acknowledge the ready manner in which American engineer units have been placed at my disposal from time to time, and the great value of the assistance they have rendered. In the battles referred to in this dispatch American and British troops have fought shoulder to shoulder in the same trenches, and have shared together in the satisfaction of beating off German attacks. All ranks of the British Army look forward to the day when the rapidly growing strength of the American Army will allow American and British soldiers to co-operate in offensive action.

Italy's Efforts in the World War

Nearly 5,500,000 Men Under Arms

[BY AUTHORITY OF THE ITALIAN WAR BUREAU]

SINCE the beginning of the war Italy has called to the colors little less than 5,500,000 men and has suffered a loss of almost 1,500,000 of them. Of that loss nearly 350,000 died in battle and 100,000 from disease. Over 550,000 are totally incapacitated, either by blindness, loss of limb, or tuberculosis. At the end of the war the strength of the Italian Army was 4,025,000, including the class of men born in 1900, who had been called to the colors recently. It may be said, then, that the nation's man power has suffered a permanent loss of nearly a million.

But serious as is this loss, Italy has inflicted an even greater punishment upon the foe. In Austrian prisoners alone she has taken approximately a million. The Austrian loss in killed and wounded is, of course, still unknown, but even the most conservative estimates make it far greater than ours. In the June offensive on the Piave alone over 200,000 Austrian dead were left on the field.

Aside from their achievements in other theatres of the war, Italy's soldiers fought through fifteen furious offensives on the Isonzo and the Piave, inflicting terrible losses on the foe in each. These campaigns were carried on in mountainous regions and under rigorous weather conditions that taxed to the utmost the genius of the military engineers and the endurance of the troops. The foe, when hostilities opened, were entrenched in carefully prepared and seemingly impregnable positions, backed by a network of military roads and railroads. On the Italian side were deep gorges, unscalable cliffs, almost impassable glaciers, passes filled with snow and commanded by Austrian guns. There were no suitable roads or bridges. The surmounting of these difficulties has challenged the admiration of the engineering world.

Over 2,500 miles of roads have been constructed on the mountains of Italy

and of Albania, and 1,000 miles of aerial cable railroads (Teleferiche) have been built to carry food, ammunition, and guns over deep ravines.

The magnitude of this military effort can be fully appreciated only when one takes into consideration the economic structure of the nation and the nature and number of its population. One must remember that out of 36,000,000 inhabitants in Italy at the beginning of the war only 17,000,000 were male. This seeming disproportion is caused by emigration, which was largely composed of male adults. Out of those 17,000,000 only 9,000,000 were adults economically productive. Consequently the subtraction of the mobilized forces has had an acute reaction on the economic life of the nation. It is estimated that on an average only 100 adults remained in each town or village to provide in each case for some 320 children below the age of 15.

Furthermore, the traditions of Italian family life render the work of their women an economic factor of less importance than in some other countries, though it has been utilized to the utmost and became more available as old traditions gave way to war's necessity.

Italy got no help from colonial contingents. On the contrary, the scarcity of native troops in Italy's colonies compelled the Government to reinforce them with troops from the mother country. Nor has help come to Italy through the co-operation of workmen of neutral or allied countries. Italy, on the other hand, sent a large contingent of skilled workmen to France, thus allowing the latter to release valued elements for war. Furthermore, nearly 500,000 of our male adults residing in America gave to that great nation direct contribution of their economic and military efforts.

To meet their military obligations, therefore, the Italian people have been compelled to cut into the most urgent

needs of agriculture and industry. The continuous lack of labor has made the task of feeding the army and providing it with munitions a most difficult one.

And yet Italy, lacking labor and industrial development, lacking almost entirely coal and raw materials, was by a miracle of energy able to create almost from nothing a powerful organization of war industries.

The very act of entering the war cut off Italy from one of the sources of supply of manufactured products. It is not necessary here to enlarge upon the well-known fact that Italian markets were largely under the domination of Germany and Austria. That is a situation that is as well known to Americans as it is and was distasteful to Italians. And it might be said in passing that it is a situation that must be guarded against by allied co-operation and sympathetic economic relationship when peace is signed.

Financially Italy also has responded to the demands of war with an openhandedness that has surprised even herself.

From the 1st of August, 1914, to the end of 1917 the total expenditures of the State were \$8,895,600,000. Calculating on the basis of a monthly average expenditure for the war of \$240,000,000, the total cost of the war to Italy would be more than \$12,000,000,000.

A further proof of the financial effort Italy made for the war, notwithstanding her small means, is found in her five loans. The first one yielded about \$200,000,000, and it seemed a great struggle, yet still others were launched, all giving greater returns, and the last one, after the disaster of October, 1917, yielded about \$1,300,000,000.

It must be remembered, too, that labor shortage has meant a food shortage. It has established a vicious circle. Italy's fighters and industrial workers have accomplished their work while forced to endure a régime of restricted diet that has meant real and continuous suffering such as probably is not to be found anywhere among the other belligerent peoples.

The Campaign in Palestine

General Allenby's Official Report of the Fighting North of Jerusalem Up to September 18, 1918

THE operations of the British Expeditionary Force in Palestine between the capture of Jerusalem and the beginning of the drive toward Damascus are recorded by General Sir Edmund Allenby in a dispatch made public in London on Nov. 6, 1918. The report covers the period from Dec. 9, 1917, when the British entered Jerusalem, to Sept. 18, 1918, when General Allenby started his new campaign, which resulted in the capture of Damascus and Aleppo. It reveals the fact that at the time of the last German sweep toward the Marne a considerable portion of the Palestine expedition had to be withdrawn to fight in France.

General Allenby begins with the operations making Jaffa and Jerusalem safe against Turkish counterattacks, a task

performed chiefly by the 21st Corps, (52d and 54th Divisions,) whose efforts "increased the distance between the enemy and Jaffa from three to eight miles." He continues:

The chief obstacle lay in the crossing of the Nahn el Auja. This river is only fordable in places, and all approaches to it are overlooked from Sheikh Muannis and Khurbet Hadrah. At these places two spurs running from north to south terminate abruptly in steep slopes some 500 yards from the river.

Before the 21st Corps could reach its final objectives, it was necessary that the guns should move forward with the infantry. Consequently, Sheikh Muannis, Khurbet Hadrah, and the high ground overlooking the river had to be captured as a preliminary to the general advance in order that bridges might be built.

The chief difficulty lay in concealing the collection and preparation of rafts and

bridging material. All preparations were completed, however, without attracting the enemy's attention, and on the night of Dec. 20-21 the 52d Division crossed the river in three columns. The enemy was taken completely by surprise. The left column, fording the river near its mouth, at this point four feet deep, captured Tel er Rekkeit, 4,000 yards north of the river's mouth; the centre and right columns, crossing on rafts, rushed Sheikh Muannis and Khurbet Hadrah at the point of the bayonet. By dawn a line from Khurbet Hadrah to Tel er Rekkeit had been consolidated and the enemy deprived of all observation from the north over the valley of the Nahr el Auja.

PROTECTING JERUSALEM

The 20th Corps had been ordered to take up the Beitin-Nalin line—that is, an advance on a twelve-mile front to a depth of six miles immediately north of Jerusalem. As it was, the enemy both to the north and the east were only four miles away from the city. When the preparations of the corps were nearing completion, the enemy attacked in force astride the Jerusalem-Nablus (Shechem) road. The attack was launched at 11:30 P. M. on Dec. 26, (1917,) and by 1:30 A. M. on the 27th the 60th (London) Division—holding the northern front—was engaged on its whole front, the heaviest fighting being east of the Shechem road. General Allenby continues:

Repeated attacks were made against Tel el Ful, a conspicuous hill from which Jerusalem and the intervening ground can be overlooked. The attacks were made by picked bodies of troops, and were pressed with great determination. At only one point did the enemy succeed in reaching the main line of defense. He was driven out at once by the local reserves. In all these attacks he lost heavily.

In the meantime the enemy had delivered attacks against various points held by the 53d Division east of Jerusalem. On the extreme right at Kh. Deir Ibn Obeld a company of Middlesex troops was surrounded by 700 Turks, supported by mountain artillery. Although without artillery support, it offered a most gallant resistance, holding out till relief came on the morning of the 28th. None of the other attacks on this division's front were any more successful.

On the 60th Division front north of Jerusalem a lull in the fighting occurred after 8 A. M. This lasted till 12:55 P. M., when the enemy launched an attack of unexpected strength against the whole front. In places this attack reached our

main line of defense, but these small successes were short-lived, for in each case local counterattacks, carried out immediately, were successful in restoring the line. This proved to be the final effort.

A counterattack by the 74th and 10th Divisions had been launched at 6:30 A. M., and now, by noon, made itself felt, the divisions making a fine advance over broken and boulder-strewn hills. By attacking the enemy's reserves they had deprived him of the initiative. Seeing that the Turkish attack was spent, General Allenby ordered a general advance northward on Dec. 28. But the Turks were still full of fight at most points, and the battle was of a very obstinate character, and lasted into the evening of the 29th, by which time the Turkish defeat was complete. Great difficulty had been found in locating the enemy's machine guns, and at one point, Shab Salah, the British came under heavy rifle and machine-gun fire from a precipitous hill overlooking the high road. The hill was, however, stormed by the 60th Division. The Royal Air Force rendered great services during the battle. The report adds:

The Turk's attempt to recapture Jerusalem had thus ended in crushing defeat. He had employed fresh troops who had not participated in the recent retreat of his army from Beersheba and Gaza and had escaped its demoralizing effects. The determination and gallantry with which his attack was carried out only served to increase his losses. * * * Seven hundred and fifty prisoners, twenty-four machine guns, and three automatic rifles were captured during these operations, and over 1,000 Turkish dead were buried by us. Our own casualties were considerably less than this number.

JERICHO CAPTURED

To secure his right flank, General Allenby decided to undertake an advance to Jericho and the Jordan. The troops engaged were the 60th and 53d Divisions, plus the Australian and New Zealand Mounted Division (less one brigade) and the Divisional Artillery. The descent to the Jordan Valley is very steep, the banks of the wadis often precipitous, and the chief obstacle to the advance was the difficulty of the ground. Nevertheless, both the infantry and the mounted troops encountered considerable opposi-

tion. The advance began on Feb. 19, and by the evening of the 20th the 60th Division had reached a line four miles west of the cliffs overlooking Jericho. In the meantime the mounted troops were working on the right (south) of the infantry toward Neby Musa—not far from the northwest corner of the Dead Sea—whence they were to strike north into the Jordan Valley.

Two miles south of Neby Musa the enemy held the high ground at Jebel el Kalimun and Tubk el Kaneiterah. Compelled to move in single file over tracks which were exposed to machine-gun fire from the enemy's position, and which had been registered accurately by the enemy's guns at Neby Musa, the progress of the mounted troops was necessarily slow. By 2 P. M., however, the enemy was driven from his position at Jebel el Kalimun and Tubk el Kaneiterah. The further advance of the New Zealand Brigade on Neby Musa was hampered by the ground, and was finally checked at the Wadi Mukellik, the only possible crossing over, which was subjected to a heavy fire from Neby Musa. On the right of the New Zealanders an Australian mounted brigade discovered a crossing over the Wadi Kumran, and, entering the Jordan plain, reached the Wadi Jufet Zeben by dusk. The chief feature of the enemy's resistance was the volume of machine-gun fire.

The Australian Mounted Brigade, advancing along the plain, entered Jericho at 8:20 A. M., the enemy having withdrawn during the night.

On no previous occasions had such difficulties of ground been encountered. As an instance of this, a field artillery battery took thirty-six hours to reach Neby Musa, the distance covered, as the crow flies, being only eight miles.

JORDAN VALLEY OPERATIONS

This right flank of the Expeditionary Force was now secure, but General Allenby had not yet obtained "a base sufficiently broad to permit of operations being carried out east of the Jordan against the Hedjaz Railway." To get this sufficiently broad base he decided to secure the high ground covering the approaches to the Jordan by the Jericho-Beisan road, and also, further west, the high ground stretching across the hills of Mount Ephraim south of Sinjil and thence northwest—a front of twenty-six miles. In the centre, east of the Shechem road, was Tel Asur, a conspicuous landmark among a mass of high hills.

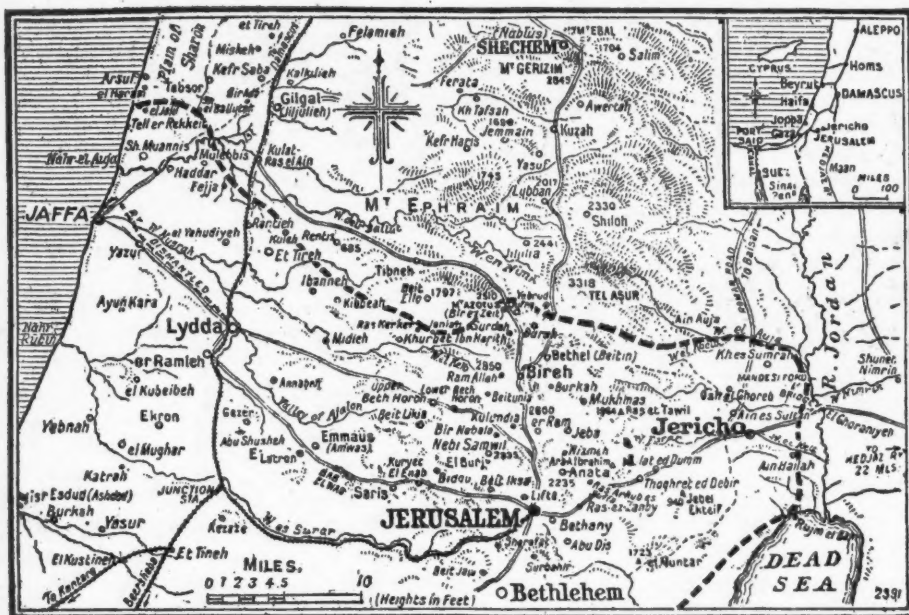
Both the 20th and 21st Corps were engaged, and operations began on March 9.

The ground over which the advance was to take place is rugged and difficult. A succession of high and rocky ridges, separated by deep valleys, afforded the enemy a series of positions of great natural strength. The slopes of the ridges are in many places precipitous. Ledges of rock confine the descent to definite places, on which the enemy could concentrate his fire. In places the slopes are terraced, and men had to pull or hoist each other up. It was necessary to reconnoitre each successive position held by the enemy, and the subsequent movement of troops into positions of assembly was of necessity a slow process. Under these conditions no rapid advance could be looked for.

The fighting was of a bitter character, but on the 9th the 60th Division, which had crossed the Wadi el Auja, north of Jericho, in the dark, seized a position astride the Beisan-Jericho road, and the 53d Division had captured Tel Asur, which mountain the enemy tried repeatedly, but in vain, to recover. On the extreme left the enemy counterattacked the 10th Division. Here by the Wadis el Nimr and El Jib "the downward slopes were exceptionally steep, almost precipitous in places. It was impossible for companies and platoons to move on a wide front. The slopes were swept by machine-gun and rifle fire, and the bottom of the wadis by enfilade fire. The ascent on the far side was steeply terraced. Men had alternately to hoist and pull each other up, under fire, and finally to expel the enemy from the summits in hand-to-hand fighting."

THE RAID ON AMMAN

By March 12 the operations (which had looked like an attempt to advance on Shechem) had reached a point which enabled General Allenby to undertake his projected raids on the Hedjaz Railway in conjunction with the Arab forces of the Sherif and Emir Faisal, which were southeast of the Dead Sea, and under General Allenby's control. Circumstances, says General Allenby, seemed favorable for a raid on the enemy's communications with the Hedjaz. If successful, Sherif Faisal would have an opportunity to attack Maan with some prospects of success. The point aimed at



SCENE OF GENERAL ALLENBY'S PALESTINE CAMPAIGN

was Amman, in the plateau of Moab, and thirty miles in a direct line east by north of Jericho.

The country between the Jordan and Amman offered many obstacles to an advance—first, the marshy valley of the Jordan, then clay ridges, next scrub, and beyond a rise of 3,500 feet in twelve miles. There was a metaled road from Ghoraniyeh bridge over the Jordan, which enters the hills at Shunet Nimrin, and then winds round the slopes of a wadi to Es Salt, (eighteen miles from the Jordan,) and so to Amman. The raid did not fully attain its object; nevertheless, it enabled Sherif Faisal so greatly to damage the railway south of Maan that at least a month's hard work would be needed to repair it.

The operations, [writes General Allenby,] which started during the night of March 21-22, were hampered considerably by rain, which fell during the days preceding the raid and on March 27 and the three following days. The Jordan is unfordable at this time of the year. The current is at all times rapid, and is liable to sudden floods, which render the banks boggy and difficult of approach for transport. On March 28 it rose nine feet. The rain which fell during the operations rendered the tracks in the hills slippery and the

movement of horses, and especially of camels, slow and difficult. The delay thus caused enabled the enemy to bring up reinforcements. Before Amman could be attacked in strength some 4,000 Turks, supported by fifteen guns, were in position near Amman, covering the viaduct and tunnel, while another 2,000 were moving on Es Salt from the north.

To have driven the enemy from his position, without adequate artillery support, would have entailed very heavy losses. Owing to the marshy nature of the country it was only possible to bring up mountain artillery, and I therefore ordered a withdrawal, which was carried out without serious interruption. Although it had not been possible to effect any permanent demolitions, five miles of railway line, including several large culverts, and the points and crossings at Alanda station, were destroyed to the south of Amman, while to the north of the town a two-arch bridge was blown up.

Considerable losses were inflicted on the enemy, and in addition fifty-three officers and over 900 other ranks were taken prisoner, including several Germans. The raid also enabled a considerable number of Armenians to escape and find a refuge west of the Jordan.

ADVANCE TO ES SALT

Following this raid the Turks became aggressive, and in April suffered very heavy losses in attacks on the Ghoraniyeh

bridgehead, while they garrisoned Shunet Nimrin with 5,000 rifles. General Allenby determined to cut off and destroy the enemy's force at that place and advance to Es Salt, and hold it till his troops could be relieved by the Arabs. He had planned to make the attempt in the middle of May, but on representations from the Beni Sakhr tribe, the operation was begun on April 30. The 60th (London) Division was to attack Shunet Nimrin, while the mounted troops were to go north and then make a semi-circular sweep south on Es Salt, and cut off the Nimrin garrison. This mounted division was to leave a force to protect the crossing of the Jordan at Jisr ed Damieh, (north of the Ghoraniyah bridgehead,) at which point the Turks held the western side of the river. The report continues:

The 60th Division captured the advanced works of the Shunet Nimrin position, but were unable to make further progress in face of the stubborn resistance offered by the enemy. The mounted troops, moving northward, rode round the right of the Shunet Nimrin position, and by 6 P. M. had captured Es Salt, leaving an Australian brigade to watch the left flank. This brigade took up a position facing northwest astride the Jisr ed Damieh-Es Salt track. * * * At 7:30 A. M. on May 1 this brigade was attacked by the 3d Turkish Cavalry Division and a part of the 24th Division, which had crossed from the west bank of the Jordan during the night at Jisr ed Damieh. The enemy succeeded in penetrating between the left of the brigade and the detachment on the bank of the Jordan. The brigade was driven back through the foothills. During its retirement through the hills nine guns and part of its transport had to be abandoned, being unable to traverse the intricate ground.

The 60th Division at Shunet Nimrin was unable to make any substantial progress, and on May 2 the troops at Es Salt were attacked by two Turkish battalions from Amman, as well as by cavalry from the north and troops from Ed Damieh. The assistance of the Beni Sakhr had not materialized, further Turkish reinforcements were on their way, and, in the circumstances, the whole force was brought back to the Jordan crossings. They had inflicted heavy loss on the enemy, and had captured fifty officers and 892 other ranks.

TROOPS SENT TO FRANCE

Meantime, the situation on the western front led to a call upon General Allenby to send troops to France, and the result was that further operations on a large scale were not undertaken in the period covered by the dispatch. General Allenby writes:

During the first week in April the 52d Division embarked for France, its place being taken by the 7th (Meerut) Division, which had arrived from Mesopotamia. The departure of the 52d Division was followed by that of the 74th Division, which left Palestine during the second week in April. The 3d (Lahore) Division was sent from Mesopotamia to replace the 74th Division, but it was not till the middle of June that the last units disembarked. In addition to the 52d and 74th Divisions, nine Yeomanry Regiments, five and a half siege batteries, ten British battalions, and five machine-gun companies were withdrawn from the line, preparatory to embarkation for France.

By the end of April the Yeomanry Regiments had been replaced by Indian Cavalry Regiments, which had arrived from France, and the British battalions by Indian battalions dispatched from India. These Indian battalions had not, however, seen service during the present war; and, naturally, had not the experience of the battalions they replaced.

Thus in April the strength of the force had been reduced by one division, five and a half siege batteries, and five machine-gun companies; while one mounted division was in process of being reorganized, and was not available for operations.

In May a further fourteen battalions of British Infantry were withdrawn and dispatched to France. Only two Indian battalions were available to replace them. Thus at the end of May the force had been further reduced by twelve battalions, while the loss of the 74th Division had not yet been fully made good. On the other hand, the reorganization of the mounted division had been completed.

* * * During July and the first week in August a further ten British battalions were replaced by ten Indian battalions, the personnel of the British battalions being used as reinforcements.

THE GERMAN DEFEAT

The most noteworthy of the events of the Summer was an attack by the enemy on both sides of the Jordan. West of the Jordan, on July 14, the enemy suddenly attacked at 3:30 A. M., and gained Abu Tellul, surrounding other advanced posts.

At 4:30 A. M. the 1st Australian Light Horse Brigade counterattacked. By 5 A. M. Abu Tellul had been regained. The enemy, driven against our advanced posts, which, with one exception, had held their ground, suffered heavily. Two hundred and seventy-six Germans, including twelve officers, and sixty-two Turks were captured. One hundred wounded and many dead were left on the ground. Great credit is due to the Australians for the quickness of their counterattack and for the determination displayed by the garrisons of the advanced posts in holding out, although surrounded.

While this fighting was in progress, a

Turkish force of considerable strength was observed to be concentrating to the east of the Jordan, midway between El Ghoranlyeh bridgehead and the Dead Sea. A cavalry brigade moved out to counter-attack. Taking advantage of the ground, the cavalry arrived within charging distance before they were observed. In the charge that ensued some ninety Turks were speared; and ninety-one, including six officers, in addition to four machine guns, were captured. It was only by reaching ground impassable for cavalry that the remainder of the Turks effected their escape. The Jodhpur Lancers played a distinguished part in this charge.

Idyl of a French Officer's Home-Coming

A correspondent with the allied forces in Flanders was motoring along a road toward the recently freed city of Denain when a French officer asked for a ride. The officer's home had been in Denain, and four years ago he had left his wife there when he joined the colors. Then had come the German occupation, cutting off his family. Now he was going back after these long years to his wife and the baby he had never seen. He was visibly wrought up to the highest pitch. It was quite possible he might find his family dead or gone and his home in ruins.

Denain had been the centre of a battle that had cost civilian lives. Neither the officer nor the correspondent mentioned this fact, but both were thinking it as the car sped over the shell-shattered road.

Entering the city, the officer directed the correspondent toward his home, through streets showing the cruel marks of the invaders' hate. As the car turned into his street, the first house was seen to be in ruins. He gave a nervous start, but said nothing. A few doors further on was his home, and the car stopped across the street from it. The officer climbed out slowly and with an effort, his eyes fixed on the place.

There were no signs of life. The windows were shuttered, and on the door was a sign showing that German officers had been living there. Crossing the street, the officer pulled the bell with a shaking hand. No one answered. He backed away like a man in a trance and leaned against the car, trembling.

Suddenly the door was opened and an aged woman servant appeared in answer to the bell. She was leading by the hand a beautiful baby girl with a wealth of golden curls. The officer took one step toward the child and then halted. He was a stranger to his own flesh and blood. The child hid behind the skirts of the nurse, peering out in fright. Undoubtedly her mother had told her many times during the German occupation that men in uniform were bad, and that she must avoid them.

The horizon-blue uniform of France meant nothing to the baby. The half-blind eyes of the old nurse had recognized her master, and she held out her hands to him, repeating "Monsieur! Monsieur!" in ecstasy. He crossed the road and grasped her hands, but the baby drew back still further.

A door opened at the end of a long hall and a comely young matron came through to see what was going on. When half way down the hall she caught sight of her husband. She stopped, her hand flew to her breast, and she swayed for a second as though about to fall. With a sobbing cry of joy she hurled herself into his arms.

The correspondent's car was already away, for outsiders were not needed to complete the scene. And thus they were left, the nurse beaming on the happy couple and the curly headed youngster looking with round, troubled eyes at this strange man who had appropriated her mother so completely without a word.

INTERNATIONAL CARTOONS OF THE WAR

The End of the Trail



—From The San Francisco Chronicle

[American Cartoon]

End of Pan-Germanism



—From The New York Herald.

"And the Unclean Spirits * * * Entered Into the Swine, and the Herd Ran Violently Down a Steep Place Into the Sea."

[American Cartoon]

Time for Him to Lay Down His Hand



—From *The Cincinnati Post* (Nov. 5, 1918.)

[English Cartoon]

Not According to Program



—From *London Opinion*

THE KAISER: "I Tried the Sword; I Tried the Pen; I Never Expected to Have to Try This Confounded White Flag."

[English Cartoon]

Sauve Qui Peut!



—From *The Passing Show*, London

[American Cartoons]

The Army of Occupation



"And We Were Told They Couldn't Get Here"

The Reception Committee



Rejoining His Allies

The Unwelcome Guest



"Yes, But Where Can I Go?"

The March to the Rhine



The Spirit of 1918

—All From the New York World

[English Cartoons]

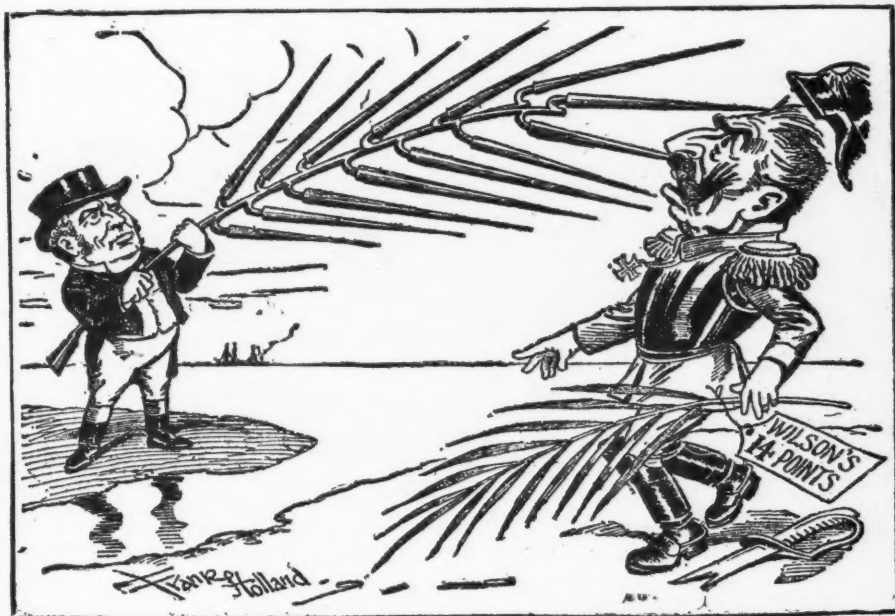
The Latest in Queues



—From *London Opinion*.

MARSHAL FOCH: "Now, Then, You Nations Surrendering, Form in Line, Please, and Don't Push."

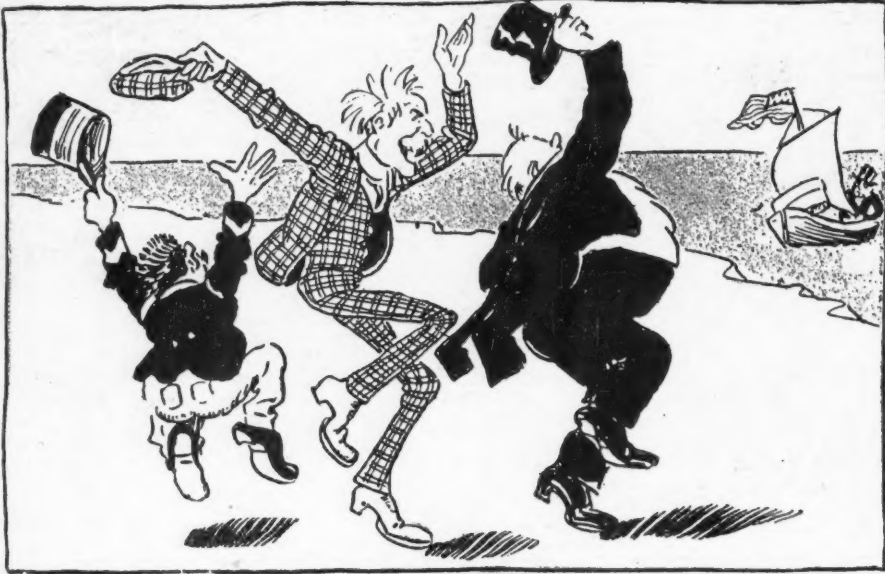
John Bull's Fourteen Points



—From *John Bull*, London.

[German Cartoon]

"Tin Soldiers"



"Hurrah! The Americans Are Coming!" Cry the Entente Brethren



But When Uncle Wilson's Army Arrives it Is Nothing But a Box of Tin Soldiers

[This Cartoon Appeared in Kladderadatsch of Berlin on July 14, 1918. Four Days Later the American Army Struck the First Blow in the Offensive That Crushed Germany]

Looking for a Job



[German-Swiss Cartoon]

In at the Death



[The Pro-German Nebelspalter of Zurich Thus Depicted President Wilson as Glorifying in the Fall of the Central Powers]

[American Cartoons]

At the Summit



"Unwept, Unhonored and Unsung"



Left on the Field of Battle



"Wanted"



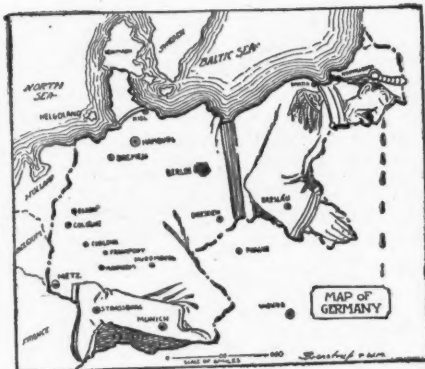
-From The Brooklyn Eagle.

[American Cartoons]

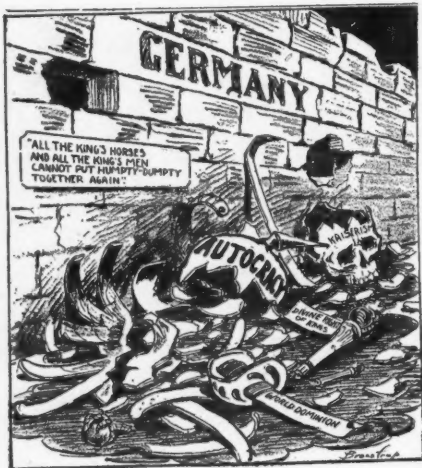
First Aid



The Suppliant



Humpty-Dumpty



The Last Goose Step



—From The San Francisco Chronicle.

[American Cartoon]

The Tasks of Peace



—From The New York Tribune.

Now All She Has to Do Is to Wash the Dishes, Feed and Quiet the Children,
Straighten Up the House and Pay the Bill

[Spanish Cartoons]

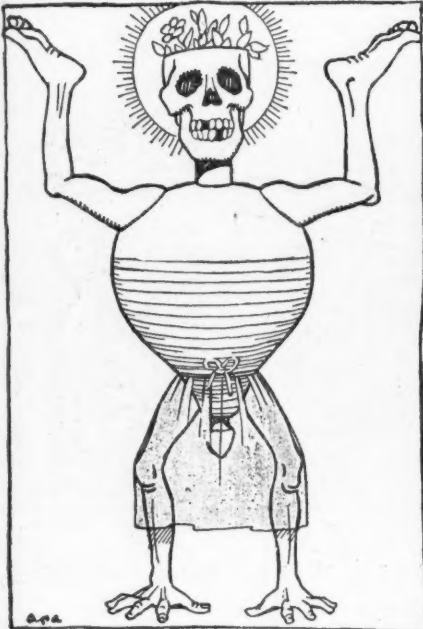
His Due Reward



—From Esquella, Barcelona

EX-KAISER: "I Deserve Peace. I Have Given It to So Many Others"

The Spirit of Bolshevism



—Iberia, Barcelona

R. I. P.



—Esquella, Barcelona

It's the Turn of the Bolsheviki Next



—Cleveland Plain Dealer.

Making the World Safe for Democracy



—New York Tribune.

While We Have Soapsuds Handy

After Forty-seven Years



—St. Louis Republic

11-11-1918



Utica Herald-Dispatch

[German-Swiss Cartoon]

The True Victors



—Nebelspalter, Zurich.

[Italian Cartoon]

Toward the End



—L'Asino, Rome.

[American Cartoon]

He Had to Come to This



—Cincinnati Post.

[American Cartoon]

Cured



—Helena Independent.

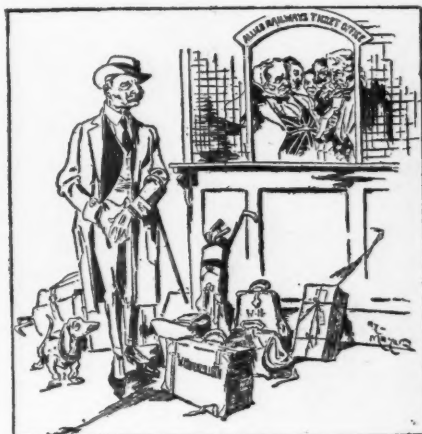
[American Cartoons]

"Come, Your Show's Over"



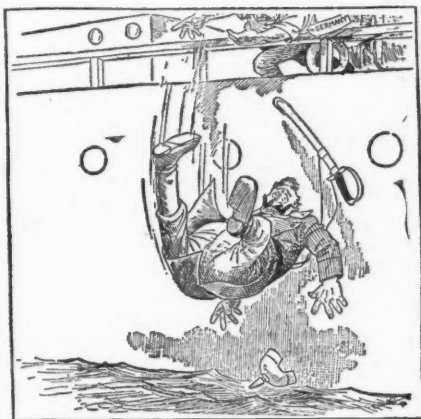
—Cleveland Plain Dealer

Citizen Hohenzollern:
"Where Do We Go From
Here?"



—New York Times

"Dropping the Pilot"



—Rochester Herald

Cause and Effect



—© 1918, by The Philadelphia Inquirer Co.

[American Cartoons]

All 'Atrocities Barred Now

[Nov. 7, 1918]



—Baltimore Sun

The End of a Dream



—New York Herald

The Super-Diplomat



—Dallas News

On His Last Line



—Dallas News